Antecedents to the intention to quit amongst

Generation Y Information Technology professionals in software development organisations in South Africa

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Declaration

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University business school will not infringe any third-party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

C. Booysen April 2019

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my creator, who has entrusted me with gifts and talents that I sought to multiply through this journey. It is dedicated to the Generation Y workforce globally and more specifically South African Generation Y employees. The thesis seeks to demystify the misconceptions that are placed on Generation Y professionals. It is also dedicated to Releasing Eagles and the youth of Heideveld for the purposes of inspiring you and sending you a message that you can achieve anything you put your mind to. Lastly, this is dedicated to my late grandmothers and unborn family – I have thought of you every step of the way and although you were not physically here with me, I have felt your presence and I could hear your cheer from the heavens – thank you.

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Abstract

This study is positioned within the emerging field of positive organisational behaviour and explored the relationships between job embeddedness, leadership, human resources (HR) practices, and intention to quit amongst the Generation Y (Gen Y) within the information technology (IT) sector in South Africa. Numerous studies have globally been conducted to gain an understanding of voluntary turnover among Generation Y employees and, although this subject has enjoyed much attention, researchers have not been able to reach consensus about reasons for the intention of Generation Y individuals to quit their jobs, especially in the IT sector. Job embeddedness is a relatively new concept and limited empirical work exists to test its relevance for various workforce populations or cultures, hence the current study explores the role played by embeddedness in the nomological network of antecedents of intention to quit. This theory has not been previously investigated within this specific sample group – the IT sector – or within the South African context.

The study utilised a mixed methods approach, using both qualitative and quantitative methods, employing an interpretivistic and positivistic paradigm for the respective phases. The salient variables identified as antecedents during the qualitative phase (Phase 1) of the research were transformational leadership, job resources, satisfaction with pay, supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness. The data was collected through a purposive sampling method and semi-structured interviews and focus groups. In the subsequent quantitative phase, standardised measuring instruments were used to measure the variables that were identified during the qualitative phase. The initial set of propositions and the proposed conceptual model were revised based on the outcomes of the qualitative phase. The quantitative phase included a pilot study (Phase 2) during which the online questionnaire was tested by making use of the purposive sample of Generation Y employees who were approached during the qualitative phase and who were willing to re-engage voluntarily.

Phase 3, as part of the quantitative phase of the study, represents the main study of this research project, in that it aimed at empirically evaluating the measurement model, as well as testing the propositions relating to the proposed structural model. Data was collected through the snowball technique, where Generation Ys who participated in previous phases were asked to refer their colleagues in the software industry. A total of 270 usable questionnaires were collected and statistically analysed. During Phase 3, three models were consecutively subjected to a series of statistical analyses. Each model was evaluated by means of goodness-of-fit statistics (confirmatory factor analysis), exploratory factor analysis appropriate to the nature of the statistical question posed, and path least square (PLS)-based evaluations of the measurement and structural models.

A factorially derived model was produced after the series of statistical analyses, which excluded the organisational links sub-construct of job embeddedness and highlighted the need for further

development in terms of the measurement model. The constructs identified as antecedents to intention to quit were satisfaction with benefits, job embeddedness, supportive organisational climate and transformational leadership.

With the unique combination of variables and the evolving construct of job embeddedness, this study can be deemed as contributing to the existing theory of and literature on job embeddedness and intention to quit. This study concludes with recommendations for future research, as well as practical interventions offered regarding the retention strategies for Generation Y employees in the software development industry in South Africa.

Key words:

generation Y, intention to quit, job embeddedness, transformational leadership, job resources, satisfaction with benefits, supportive organisational climate

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

AGFI	adjusted goodness-of-fit
AVE	average variance extracted
CB-SEM	covariance-based structural equation modelling
CEO	chief executive officer
CFA	confirmatory factor analysis
CIO	chief information officer
CJE	community job embeddedness
DF	degree of freedom
EFA	exploratory factor analysis
EJE	employee job embeddedness
Gen Y	generation Y
GFI	goodness-of-fit-index
HR	human resource management
HR	human resources
HTMT	heterotrait-monotrait ratio
IT	information technology
ITC	information technology communication
ITQ	intention to quit
JDRS	job demands-resources scale
JE	job embeddedness
JR	job resources
LMX	leader-member exchange
MLQ	multiple leadership questionnaire
NGOs	non-government organisations
NPOs	non-profit organisations
OC	organisational climate
OJE	organisational job embeddedness

OLS	ordinary least squares
PLS	path least square
PLS-SEM	partial least squares structural equation model
RMSEA	root mean square error of approximation
SEM	structural equation modelling
SOC	supportive organisational climate
SP	satisfaction with pay
SS	social support
SWB	satisfaction with benefits
TL	transformational leadership
VIF	variance inflation factor

CHAPTER 1
PROBLEM STATEMENT AND CONTEXT

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The current study is positioned within the emerging field of positive organisational behaviour, which has emerged from the positive psychology movement, and is aimed at exploring relationships that have not been investigated previously within the Generation Y context in South Africa. The fundamental assumption of the study is that South African Generation Y professionals in the software development industry may have different antecedents that would impact on their intention to quit organisations.

This chapter offers an introduction to the context of the study by placing emphasis on Generation Y professionals, the information technology (IT) industry and the impact of employee turnover on organisations. Employee turnover has been studied extensively by researchers, but this study aimed to take a closer look at the intention to quit (ITQ), which is regarded as a precursor to leaving a job, organisation or industry. For this particular research project, the specific focus was on quitting an organisation and not necessarily the industry. The introductory chapter will culminate in the presentation of the research initiating question, specific research questions, the aim of the study, and the possible contribution of the study. The chapter concludes with an outline of the remainder of the dissertation.

As part of the contextualisation of the current study we need to appreciate that over the last decades of the twentieth century a shift in the thinking of psychologists about human behaviour occurred, giving rise to a positive psychology movement and later to its application in the workplace (Munyaka, 2012). The need for change in the psychological paradigm chosen to describe behaviour in the workplace is further challenged by a generational workforce known as millennials or Generation Y, who have come of age during a time of technological change, globalisation and economic disruption. According to research conducted by Goldman Sachs, an American-based company, the millennial cohort is the biggest in United States history; therefore, the workforce is believed not only to include millennials by 2025, but to be dominated by them, and they are projected to make up three-fourths of the workforce (www.icims.com) by then.

The US workforce is increasing in age and mostly comprises three generations, namely the Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y, a phenomenon that has received much attention from researchers (Eisner, 2005). There is a rise in interest amongst researchers, human resources (HR) specialists and managers with respect to how to manage and work with different generations. The assumption that generations differ significantly regarding their goals, expectations and work values

is responsible for the current interest in this kind of research, according to Cennamo and Gardner (2008). Researchers recognise the importance of understanding Gen Y, hence numerous studies have been conducted investigating matters that are important to them in the workplace, such as examining the perceptions of leadership and authority, generational changes from Generation X to Y, the needs and expectations of Gen Y, as well as generational work values, to mention but a few. The characteristics of Gen Y will be explained in detail in Chapter 2 (Deal, Stawiski, Graves, Gentry, Ruderman, & Weber, 2012; Sayers, 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002).

However, researchers such as Macky, Gardner and Forsyth (2008) express concerns that generalisations about generational differences are often left unchallenged and unquestioned. It is recognised in some circles that there is a lack of research publications in academic journals on generational differences. It is further postulated by Giancola (2006) that the generational approach is more of a popular culture than a social science.

Supporting this view, Cennamo and Gardner (2008) believe that the generational assumptions that can be found in the popular press have not been subjected to rigorous empirical investigation. Further to the generational debate, Macky et al. (2008) believe that the available empirical results are not matching the stereotypes about the generational differences. Becton, Walker and Jones-Farmer (2014) caution and suggest that more generational research is needed as the acceptance of common generational stereotypes devoid of empirical support can not only have an adverse impact on practice, but also on research. This concern is echoed and shared by Trzesniewski and Donnellan (2010), arguing that studies investigating and testing generational differences have important applied and theoretical implications.

It was the endeavour of this research project to address some of the above concerns in attempting to close some of the gaps that appear to exist in the body of knowledge regarding Generation Y and their intention to quit (ITQ), more specifically within South Africa. The nature, characteristics and preferences of Generation Y will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

Big data is deemed as an inherent part of the fourth industrial revolution. Everyday life is not only being shaped by cloud computing, cyber-physical systems, advances in artificial intelligence and automation, but it is believed that it will impact human work life significantly (Erb, 2016). It is apparent that mobile connectivity and social media are the fundamental ways in which we obtain information and purchase products and services these days. An important trend that has a significant impact on the IT industry, and software development in particular, is the “uberisation” of a growing number of sectors offering quick, simple and dynamic ways to access services and products through mobile applications (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016). The information and digital age have challenged all businesses and even industries at large to step up in order to remain relevant and to maintain their competitive advantage. Being a “digital native” is no longer an excuse, as big data, cloud computing,

and the “internet of things” have become more pervasive in modern business. It is evident that the role which technology plays is more pervasive than ever before (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016). Sustainable competitive advantage is achieved when organisations accept the opportunities that are offered by the ever rising and evolving information economy through implementing information-based strategies. By information-based strategies, the authors Gorman, Nelson and Glassman (2004) refer to the internal processes designed so that workers create, store, access, and use information in digital form as a routine part of the process by which work is done. These strategies can help an organisation streamline and speed up information flows, improve creation and dissemination of knowledge, promote creativity, cut costs, and create new product offerings (Gorman et al., 2004). In South Africa, the board leadership has recognised technology as a key imperative for organisations. In South Africa five agenda items of high performing boards have been identified as: risk oversight, technological innovation, regulatory compliance, shareholder activism, and sustainability (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016). Technological innovation speaks to the digitisation of products and services offered by organisations. It is reported that industrial manufacturing companies intend to spend five per cent of their annual revenue in digital operations solutions over the next five years, according to Le Grange (as cited by Veldsman & Johnson, 2016). According to a survey conducted by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC, 2016), it is reported that there is an acceleration of the adoption of Industry 4.0 technologies by individual manufacturing companies. It is further reported that the digitisation, integration and automation opportunities offered enable companies not only to change their productivity levels, but also to design and improve quality outputs across the business value chain, and internally as well. For organisations to deliver in terms of these strategic imperatives, they require people who are skilled in software development to enable and operationalise the technology-related strategies. Hence the attraction, development and retention of professionals with these IT skills, and especially those of Gen Y professionals, have become critical.

One of the critical issues that faced industrial and organisational psychologists almost two decades ago was employee turnover (Healy, Lehman, & Daniel, 1995), which remains a challenge to this day. A study conducted in Canada indicated that by the age of thirty, millennials have had almost twice as many jobs and organisational changes as Generation Xs, and almost three times as many job changes as the Baby Boomers and Matures (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015). Numerous studies have been conducted in trying to understand the aspect of voluntary turnover (Besich, 2005). Nadiri and Tanova (2010) reported that more than 1 500 studies have been conducted on voluntary turnover worldwide. Questions plaguing these professionals and business leaders are, which employees are likely to leave the organisation, why, and when? Interestingly, Healy et al.’s (1995) study found that the chronological age of an individual is not meaningfully related to the decision to leave and that tenure did not moderate the relationship substantially. Contrary to this finding a meta-analysis conducted by Ng and Feldman (2009) showed that the strength of the association between age and voluntary turnover was in fact stronger, given the significant changes in mobility patterns

amongst employees. Other variables such as organisational tenure, race and education levels have been explored in connection with voluntary turnover by Ng and Feldman (2009). Many answers to these questions have been offered over the years and a meta-analysis of antecedents of employee turnover in the 20th century, conducted by Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000), identified a number of variables. These variables included items such as personal characteristics (cognitive ability and race), satisfaction with overall job and job facets, other dimensions of work experience (leader-member exchange, participative management, promotional chances, work group cohesion, role stress, pay, pay satisfaction, distributive justice and job scope), external environmental factors, behavioural predictors (lateness, absences, high performers versus low performers) and cognitions and behaviours related to the withdrawal process (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job searches). The complexities surrounding the understanding of the antecedents to intention to quit and employee turnover present a challenge that has been further exacerbated by organisations grappling with the presence of the new generation employees in the workplace and the need to understand what the antecedents are to quitting their present jobs. Given the many factors that could have an impact on an employee's intention to quit, what are the specific factors that influence Gen Y employees' intention to quit and, more specifically, that of a South African Gen Y in the software development industry?

Further to the contextualisation of this study it is important to understand the changing world of work and the challenges the IT industry is facing when it comes to the retention of their greatest asset, their employees. This is followed by a brief overview of the cultural differences that exists amongst Gen Ys and the unique nature of the South African context. Empirical research conducted on understanding the South African Gen Y workforce will be discussed, as well as work relating to the intention to quit among Gen Y employees in other industries and countries.

1.2. CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AMONGST GEN Y

Wang, Rauen and Subramanian (2015) found that their findings were similar across cultures when examining what motivates recent graduates globally to join high-tech companies. There were some differences, which chiefly revolved around their preference for one factor over another, such as telecommuting over brand recognition.

For Gen Y graduates in India the concept of workplace freedom and being employed by an organisation where their contributions are recognised and rewarded proved to be important (Wang et al., 2015). What is critical for this sample is to progress and actualise, maintaining their personal identity and growing their social status, and having opportunities to experiment, taking risks and expressing their creativity.

In the case of Gen Y employees in China, Wang et al. (2015) discovered that when choosing an employer, about 90 per cent of those graduates wanted to work for organisations that had very strong

innovation reputations. Being perceived as an innovative organisation plays an immense role in attracting Generation Ys in China and other emerging markets.

Among Generation Y employees in Africa, Wang et al. (2015) found that mobile and cloud solutions presented enhanced flexible work arrangements everywhere. However, in “high risk-reward” Africa, the infrastructure to support the adaptability of these solutions is critical to fostering effective innovative disruption. In engaging the Generation Y graduates in Africa, the researcher observed the benefit and momentum of digital centres and repositories that facilitate skills development by increasing accessibility (Wang et al., 2015).

In a survey conducted by Wang et al. (2015), students from the three top programmes joining the high-tech industry assigned value to mentorship programmes, coaching programmes and major project ownership, in order of priority. These researchers further believed that the fact that mentorship programmes were assigned the highest priority was indicative of the fact that participants in the high-tech industry are developmentally driven. Another finding they reported was that, even though Generation Ys were technologically aware, they preferred a personal connection with people, which could be provided to them through training and other activities.

Recognising the urge to do meaningful work, granting access to significant projects and communicating how their work is related to both the micro and macro environments, are key in motivating and retaining Generation Y employees (Wang et al., 2015). According to their study the best way to support Generation Ys is for managers to use mentorship and coaching programmes (Wang et al., 2015). Flexible working hours, profit-sharing programmes and telecommunicating are critical drawcards in attracting students to the high-tech industry (Wang et al., 2015).

Benefit programmes are a low priority, according to the study by Wang, et al. (2015), as they found that only three per cent of the graduates claimed benefits as the first priority when considering employers or employment opportunities. A closer look at Generation Y within a South African is presented next.

1.3. GENERATION Y IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

The exact parameters for Generation Y in terms of dates, according to Stoerger (2009) are debatable. Generational boundaries, especially the definitions thereof, are problematic and to date most research investigating generational differences have been conducted in the US, UK, Canada and New Zealand (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). For example, in Europe and America, Generation Y has been classified as those born between 1980 and 2000 (Deal et al., 2012; Strauss & Howe, as cited in Papenhausen, 2011; Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). This discrepancy blurs the generational lines, especially when we consider the next generation coming after Generation Y, who is known as Generation Z (Gen Z), who were born after 1991 (Yadav & Rai, 2017). South Africa has

unique dynamics, when taking the birth years into account, according to Deal et al. (2012) and Mattes (2011). They are of the view that the Generation Y population can be split into two groups, namely the Transition Generation (born between 1981 and 1993) and the Free Generation (born between 1994 and 2000). The Transition Generation would be familiar with the apartheid-related violence that occurred during their childhood years. However, they were also the first to enter a new legal system that did not dictate how they should travel, study, work, live and marry (Mattes, 2011). The previous legal system, under the apartheid regime, regulated people in terms of how they could travel, study, work, live and marry and was governed by laws such as the Population Registration Act No. 30 of 1950, the Group Areas Act of 1950, the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act of 1949, the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act of 1953, and the Bantu Education Act of 1953 (www.sahistory.org.za). This group of Generation Ys in South Africa was also exposed to the democratic political processes, global news and media (Marais, 2013). The younger members of the South African Generation Y cohort, who are referred to as the Born Frees, would have no recollection or experience of living within the apartheid regime (Marais, 2013). This groups' experience of growing up in South Africa is one of witnessing democratic political processes, globalisation through television and technological advances such as the Internet, for example (Deal et al., 2012; Mattes, 2011). As noted, previous generations were informed by life events and major events, such as the political unrest that resulted in township riots, FW de Klerk being named as the president, Mandela's release after 27 years, and the ANC's victory during the first democratic/ non-racial election, all of which may have influenced the Generation Y population of South Africa (Robyn, 2012; www.sahistory.org.za). Moreover, as this generation was now part of the global village, technological advances, events in other countries, such as the United States of America (11 September, Afghanistan and Iraqi wars, and Hurricane Katrina) could have influenced members of Generation Y in South Africa.

It is important to recognise that the South African Generation Y employees have a unique story and they continue to live in a country that is so diverse in its make-up that it is referred to as the rainbow nation, boasting 11 official languages (www.sahistory.org.za). It may be unfair to use the findings of Generation Y studies conducted in America, Australia, Canada and Europe, which are readily available, and then liken or generalise these findings to the challenges and opportunities South African Generation Y employees experience, as well as their experiences of the world of work (Deal et al., 2012; Lavoie-Tremblay, Leclerc, Marchionni, & Drevniok, 2010; Sayers, 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Over the last few years more and more enquiries have been made into the South African Generation Y population (April, Loubser, & Peters, 2012; Marais, 2013; Marx, 2012; Smith, 2010; Robyn, 2012), but none, to the best of this researcher's knowledge, in the software development sector in the IT industry.

For the purposes of this study, and taking cognisance of important South African historical events, Generation Y members were classified as those born between 1980 and 2000. The focus was on

both the younger (Born Free) and older members (Transition) of Generation Y, as both can be found within the South African IT software industry.

1.4. BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Today's world of work is unrecognisable compared to the world of work of only a few years ago, with employers and employees embracing revolutionary communication advances, the emerging trends of flexible working arrangements, greater diversity in the work setting and significant restructuring of work arrangements through outsourcing and off-shore engagements (Nicholls, 2012). According to Carnoy (1998), some authors argue that globalisation and new technologies signal the "end of work". An increased level of economic competition on a global scale and the enormous diffusion of new information and communication technology are significantly affecting the nature of work (Carnoy, 1998). Considering the aspects of increased competition, heightened sensitivity of information, technological advancement and boundaryless careers, it is apparent that the working landscape has most definitely become associated with uncertainty and perpetual change (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Because of the change in the nature of work, immense new demands are placed on various sectors and potentially changing it.

The Manpower Group (2011) recognised that the world of work is rapidly changing, so much so that organisations today are faced with numerous people issues, such as identifying the skills required in order to succeed in the future; and developing the right talent acquisition and retention programmes at every level of the organisation. Furthermore, identifying the skills developments and training needs of the workforce, and looking outside of the traditional labour pool to consider a truly diverse workforce are some additional arguments. The retention of talent and especially that of Generation Y is currently an international challenge across industries. This is particularly critical in the global software development sector (GSD), where it has become a phenomenon that has received interest from companies all over the world within the IT space (Holmström, Conchúir, Agerfalk, & Fitzgerald, 2006). According to a report published by Stats South Africa during April 2015, the country has in total 44 730 IT professionals, consisting of 39 901 males and 4 829 females (M. Malerato, personal communication, June 13, 2016). This small talent pool serves a variety of industries, since South Africa exists in the age of technology. The IT industry is not excluded from the war for talent with its increased demands that are being placed on the available labour pool. Labour turnover is becoming more and more problematic, with organisations losing their most skilled and talented employees (Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole, & Owen, 2002). According to Robyn and Du Preez (2013), South African organisations will have to broaden their interest in survival beyond profitability if they want to dominate in the global economy. Boninelli and Meyer (2004) proposed that this interest should include the attraction, development and retention of talent. Robyn and Du Preez (2013) highlight that retaining the next generation of employees is a challenge because the

increasing mobility of younger employees and inability of organisations in finding and retaining their skilled employees.

According to Hill and Stephens (2003), some of the significant challenges organisations are facing in the 21st century include a new client base, because of shifts in demography, culture and socio-economics, as well as redefining the development of client relationships because of the worldwide application of the Internet. In addition, managing the new generation of workers to increase their performance in and commitment to their jobs and organisations is a huge challenge. Frank, Finnegan and Taylor (2004) highlight that unplanned and voluntary turnover because of employee dissatisfaction and disengagement generates additional costs for organisations. Younger employees tend to change their jobs more than nine times before they reach their mid-thirties (Moody, 2000). Moreover, the employee turnover figures range from 15 to 20 per cent in the high technology field (Moody, 2000). According to Maccoby (2007), leadership skills are needed to recognise, attract, retain, develop and manage the required talent for organisations to produce optimal value in this new knowledge-service world. Studies argue that this will be possible with a multigenerational workforce when leaders identify the characteristics and uniqueness of the group of employees (Alch, 2000; Pekala, 2001).

The need to understand the new generation entering the workplace has led to numerous research endeavours internationally. To understand Generation Y in the workplace, numerous studies have been conducted in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States of America (Gentry, Griggs, Deal, Mondore, & Cox, 2011; Yu & Miller, 2003; Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2010; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Interest in how to manage and work with different generations is on the rise, not only among researchers, but HR specialists and managers too. Much of the interest is based on the assumption that generations differ significantly when it comes to their goals, expectations and work values (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). On a more local front, research on Generation Y in South Africa has focused on gaining a better understanding of what attracts them (Smith, 2010), their learning styles (Wessels & Steenkamp, 2009), and their decision-making styles in fashion purchases (Mandhlazi, 2012).

Despite the fact the antecedents of the intention to quit amongst higher education institutions in South Africa have been examined (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013), to the best of this researcher's knowledge, no investigation has been conducted in South Africa on Generation Ys' intention to quit in the IT industry. To appreciate the weight of the importance of the retention of skills within the IT industry and specifically software development, it may be worthwhile to review the future world of work and the current skills shortage globally and locally.

1.5. THE FUTURE WORLD OF WORK

After engaging 18 000 employers in 43 countries across six industry sectors, the Manpower Group (2016) indicated that more than 90 per cent of employers anticipate that their organisations will be impacted by digitisation within the next two years. There is an awareness that hardly a day goes by without news of digitisation, artificial intelligence and the virtual reality impacting the world of work.

Chui, Manyika and Miremadi (2016) report that up to 45 per cent of tasks that are currently being performed by human beings who are being paid can be automated with current technology. It is reported that the automation of work is currently focused on physical work, data collection and processing tasks, and, in the long-run, automation will even affect mid-to-high-skilled professions, such as the tasks of medical doctors that are of a complex nature (Erb, 2016). Another perspective is that cognitive and manual routine tasks will be replaced by technology, whilst people will take on non-routine and more fulfilling roles (Manpower Group, 2016). Some researchers believe that this transition will take a while (Autor, 2015), whilst others believe that the world of work is about to be heavily disrupted in almost all aspects due to the escalation in automation, robotics and artificial intelligence (Ignatius, 2016; Smith & Anderson, 2014). Some researchers postulate that the impact of technology may be hyper inflated today, but as the cost and complexity is decreasing in the implementation of technology, the pace of the changes is set to eventually accelerate (Manpower Group, 2016).

As digitisation becomes a reality and is rapidly growing, an increased demand can be expected in all industries and geographies for data analysis skills, which are required for making sense of big data. It is further believed that 65 per cent of the jobs that Gen Z will perform, the generation entering the workplace after Generation Y, do not even exist yet (Manpower Group, 2016).

According to Moore and Burke (2002), the retention of IT employees has become a critical factor in their endeavour to achieve strategic business objectives. It is believed that the exit of an IT professional who is well acquainted with a project can delay or even prevent the implementation of a new technology or system. The supply and demand gap in the IT labour market also further intensifies the IT-retention problem, as some authors have reported turnover rates of 25-35 per cent of IT professionals in Fortune 500 companies over the last few years (James & Mathew, 2012; Jiang & Klein, 1999). To gain a better understanding of the seriousness of the skills shortage, an overview is presented in the next section.

1.6. HOLISTIC OVERVIEW OF SKILLS SHORTAGE GLOBALLY AND LOCALLY

According to the Talent Shortage Survey produced by Manpower (2015), the number of employers reporting the largest talent shortage is Singapore (to 40%), South Africa (31%), Romania (61%) and Greece (59%). The talent that was identified as the hardest to find by employers globally was skilled

trade positions, ranking as number one, followed by sales representatives, and in third place engineers and technicians, as indicated in Figure 1.1 below.

Global: Top ten jobs employers are finding difficult to fill

1| Skilled trade workers
2| Sales representatives
3| Engineers
4| Technicians
5| Drivers
6| Management/Executives
7| Accounting & Finance staff
8| Secretaries, PAs, Administrative assistants & Office support staff
9| IT Staff
10| Production/Machine operators

Figure 1.1: Global: Top ten jobs employers are finding difficult to fill.

Adapted from “Talent Shortage Survey”, by The Manpower Group, 2015, retrieved from https://www.manpowergroup.com/wps/wcm/connect/db23c560-08b6-485f-9bf6-f5f38a43c76a/2015_Talent_Shortage_Survey_US-lo_res.pdf?MOD=AJPERES

Significantly, IT positions are ranked ninth in the top ten globally.

As per Figure 1.2 below, IT staff in this case would include developers, programmers, database administrators, IT leaders and managers.

Hardest jobs to fill

1| Skilled trade workers (especially chef/bakers/butchers, mechanics and electricians)
2| Sales representatives
3| Engineers (especially mechanical, electrical and civil engineers)
4| Technicians
5| Drivers
6| Management/Executives
7| Accounting & Finance staff
8| Office support staff
9| IT staff (especially developers and programmers, database administrators, and IT leaders and managers)
10| Production/Machine operations

Figure 1.2: Hardest jobs to fill

Adapted from “Talent Shortage Survey” byThe Manpower Group, 2015, retrieved from https://www.manpowergroup.com/wps/wcm/connect/db23c560-08b6-485f-9bf6-f5f38a43c76a/2015_Talent_Shortage_Survey_US-lo_res.pdf?MOD=AJPERES

According to this report, skilled trade vacancies are the hardest jobs to fill globally for the fourth consecutive year. Sales representatives are in the second place, followed by engineers, technicians and drivers.

Not being able to attract or retain the required skills has diverse impacts on an organisation at varying levels. According to a Talent Shortage Report produced by Manpower Group (2015), the negative impact of talent shortage on the employers' ability to meet their clients' needs was the highest (42%), together with reduced competitiveness/productivity (42%). In addition, 30 per cent anticipated an increase in employee turnover and 26 per cent expected lower employee engagement and morale. Innovation and creativity were expected to be reduced by 25 per cent, while an increase in compensation because of talent shortages was expected.

An analysis closer to home, namely Europe, Middle East and Africa (EMEA), captured in the Talent Shortage Survey, indicated the most difficult roles to fill were the skilled trade categories, as well as the global top ten. A noteworthy change is the return of the IT staff category to the top ten, which moved from the 11th position in 2014 to eighth position in 2015, as indicated in Figure 1.3 below.

Top jobs employers are finding difficult to fill

1| Skilled trade workers
2| Engineers
3| Sales representatives
4| Drivers
5| Management/Executives
6| Technicians
7| Accounting & Finance staff
8| IT staff
9| Secretaries, PAs, Administrative assistants & Office support staff
10| Labourers

Figure 1.3: Top jobs employers are finding difficult to fill

Adapted from "Talent Shortage Survey" by The Manpower Group, 2015, retrieved from https://www.manpowergroup.com/wps/wcm/connect/db23c560-08b6-485f-9bf6-f5f38a43c76a/2015_Talent_Shortage_Survey_US-lo_res.pdf?MOD=AJPERES

The gap between the number of job vacancies and the available talent to fulfil those roles within the IT space is growing, according to Moore (2000). It is therefore imperative for organisations to do their best to retain their IT talent. A study conducted in the IT industry in India on employee retention strategies indicated that people leave organisations for several reasons, such as factors that lead to job-related stressors, lack of commitment to the organisation, and personal and job dissatisfaction, which could be a result of compensation, job security, job autonomy, relationship with supervisor or colleagues. Organisational factors could also influence the turnover intention, such as the

organisational culture, which can be either motivating or de-motivating to a number of employees (James & Mathew, 2012).

The benefits of retention strategies for organisations are that they minimise the direct and indirect costs associated with voluntary turnover, such as recruitment, induction, training and development, as well as the potential production costs as a result of the need to on-board the substituted employee (James & Mathew, 2012). Other indirect costs resulting from voluntary turnover relate to the management time spent on finding suitable substitutes, pressure on workforce planning, negative impact on the culture and morale of existing team members, the negative impact on social capital, the erosion of institutional memory, the learning costs for new employees, the costs of being short-staffed, and the costs of the quality of the product or services to clients, which could lead to a loss in business (Cheng & Brown, 1998; Dess & Shaw, 2001).

Baird, Griffin and Henderson (2003) demonstrated that in an information-driven economy, organisations must act under increasingly tight time and resource constraints; therefore, the need for corporate training programmes to help individuals gain and apply knowledge more quickly is critical.

The following section outlines the theoretical framework of the research project, the research-initiating question, and the aim of the study, the objectives and purpose of the study, the research setting and basic methodology, as well as the significance of the study. This chapter will be concluded by providing an overview of what will be covered in each of the chapters in this research project.

1.7. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE CURRENT RESEARCH PROJECT

The current study assumed that there may be various variables related to organisational and individual factors influencing Generation Y employees' intention to quit. The organisational level predictors and individual predictors were explored through the literature review, semi-structured interviews and focus groups that were planned for Phase 1 of this research project. The philosophical assumption underlying the emerging theoretical model was an appreciation of the bi-directional interactionism among the organisational and individual variables included in the model.

1.8. RESEARCH INITIATING QUESTION

The current study was guided by the following research initiating question:

Which organisational and individual variables serve as the antecedents to intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals in South Africa?

1.9. AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to determine the individual and organisational antecedents and their impact on the intention to quit of Generation Y professionals within the IT industry in South Africa.

A further aim of this study was to address the early detection of Generation Ys' intention to quit. The pattern of relationships between the variables was investigated with Generation Y employees within the South African context and particularly within the IT industry. These variables may lead to indications of effective strategies for retaining talent that are appropriate for organisations in South Africa.

1.10. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives were formulated to respond to the stated research initiating question:

- To propose a theoretical model of variables influencing intention to quit amongst Generation Y employees in the IT industry.
- To evaluate the theoretical model by means of qualitative methodologies and to develop a structural model explaining the intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals.
- To empirically evaluate the structural model developed and determine the nature of the relationships between the identified variables and intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals.
- To make recommendations to recruiters, HR professionals, talent managers and business leaders within software development organisations with respect to the intentional and purposeful management and retention of Generation Y professionals.

1.11. BASIC METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The study utilised a mixed method approach including both a qualitative and a quantitative strand, but was primarily based on the positivistic research paradigm. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the search for universal laws of human behaviour, quantification in measurement, and a definition of objectivity, which requires distance between researcher and the research subjects, is emphasised by positivism. Furthermore, according to Jonker and Pennink (2010), positivism asserts that the only authentic knowledge is that which is found in sense, experience and positive verification.

In alignment with the assumptions of the positivistic paradigm, Kerlinger and Lee (2000) describe the quantitative approach as direct observations with the goal to describe cause and effect, based on assumed knowledge that stems from observations of the physical world and the investigator making inferences from what was observed. Babbie and Mouton (2001) state that the three features of the quantitative research paradigm are to first emphasise the quantification of constructs, and then

to emphasise variables in describing and analysing human behaviour. Lastly, the central role that is given to control for sources of error in the research process is emphasised.

The methodology employed entailed working towards a model-building approach and testing the relationships between the independent variables (antecedents) and dependent variable (intention to quit). The study was embedded in the quantitative approach; however, a mixed methods approach was utilised. An exploratory sequential mixed methods design was employed, made up of a qualitative phase and a quantitative phase. The initial phase, which was the qualitative phase, was used to collect data through semi-structured interviews and focus groups from three technology organisations. The data collected served as input for the subsequent quantitative phase. The mixed methods design is discussed in more detail in the research setting section and also in Chapter 3.

1.12. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research was to investigate Generation Ys' intention to quit by examining the organisational variables and individual variables of this particular population in the IT industry in South Africa. The findings of this research may serve as input for human capital professionals, recruitment managers and business leaders in developing strategies to retain Generation Ys within software development organisations in South Africa.

1.13. RESEARCH SETTING

It was envisaged to draw samples of Generation Y employees in software development organisations in South Africa within the IT industry. This study employed a mixed methods approach, which is defined by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007, p. 123) as

> *…the type of research in which a researcher or a team of researchers combines elements of the qualitative and quantitative research approach (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.*

There are various typologies of mixed methods and in this study the exploratory sequential mixed methods design was used, consisting of a qualitative phase and a quantitative phase. In the first phase, the qualitative stage, data was collected and analysed, followed by the second phase where quantitative data collection and analysis were performed, and finally where the findings were interpreted as indicated by the diagram below.

Exploratory sequential mixed methods

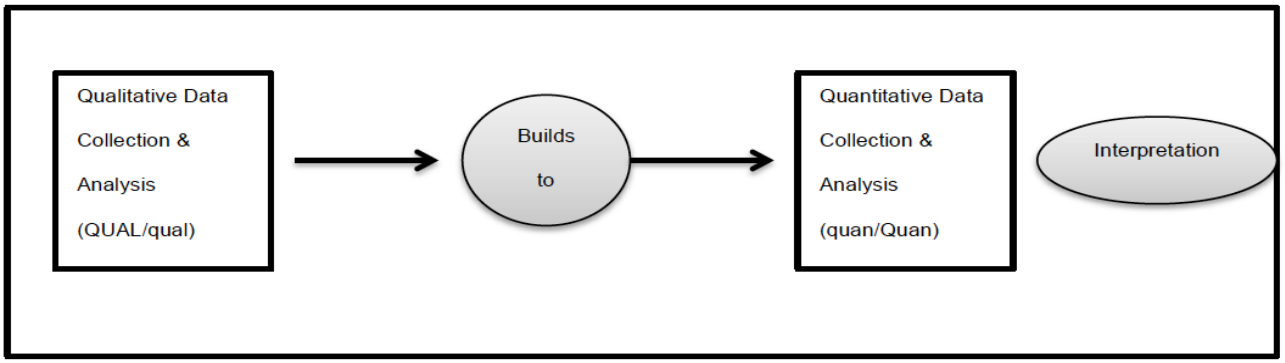


Figure 1.4: Exploratory sequential mixed methods

Adapted from"Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches" by Creswell, J. W. 2014, 4th ed., Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

For the initial phase (qualitative) purposive sampling was used, where three IT organisations were approached to conduct semi-structured interviews through focus groups to collect data for the qualitative phase. For the last phase, the quantitative phase, non-probability sampling was most appropriate, more specifically using snowball sampling, which is considered a form of accidental sampling. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), this process of data collection is where a few members of a targeted population known to the researcher are located and then these individuals are asked to identify other members of the same population whom they know. These samples represented Generation Y employees at different organisational levels, language groups and cultures within software development organisations. The intent of this design was to inform and enable the exploration of themes or patterns emerging from interviews with sampled individuals.

During the qualitative phase, semi-structured and focus group interviews were conducted to explore possible antecedents to intention to quit in addition to the literature review in order to inform the preliminary model. Through purposive sampling the qualitative data was obtained by employing the methods mentioned above in three medium sized software development organisations, namely Argility, Alacrity Technologies and C-quential. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and content analysis performed. The findings and outcomes of the interviews and literature review served to identify the proposed antecedents (independent variables) to intention to quit (dependent variable). The data was used to inform the model and, based on this input, electronic questionnaires were compiled representing the identified variables. The initial sample size for interviews was 34participants.Phase 2 was the pilot phase, where the same sample population was invited back to provide further feedback on the questionnaire developed. Some of the feedback received from the focus groups was implemented prior to the execution of Phase 3, which was the quantitative phase. The quantitative data collection method was an online questionnaire, making use of a snowball

sampling method. The data was filtered, and 270 useable data sets were retrieved purely from Generation Ys, the focus cohort for this study.

Essentially, the study consisted of three phases – Phase 1: qualitative phase, Phase 2: testing questionnaire phase, and Phase 3: collecting quantitative data. Detailed discussions on the design, methodology and analysis of the study are presented in Chapters 3 and 4.

1.14. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Several countries have received research attention in terms of Generation Ys entering the workplace; however, South Africa was not included in these projects. It is envisaged that this study will contribute to the body of knowledge in the field of positive organisational behaviour by developing an explanatory model of variables influencing the intention to quit among Generation Y professionals within the IT industry. In addition, the study offers insights to business leaders and human capital professionals regarding the motivational patterns of Generation Y professionals entering the workforce and how individual and organisational factors influence their ITQ.

The variables identified in this study are therefore important because of their practical implications for organisations and the future workforce of South Africa.

Several attempts have been made by researchers (e.g. Bluedorn, 1982; Kalliath and Beck, 2001; Kramer et al., 1995; Peters et al., 1981; Saks, 1996) to answer the question of which factors determine the intention to quit by investigating possible antecedents of employees' intentions to quit. Little consistency has however been evident in the findings, partly because of the diversity of constructs studied by the researchers, the lack of consistency in measurements, but also the heterogeneity of populations sampled.

1.15. ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS IN THE STUDY

Chapter 1

This chapter positions the study within positive psychology in the workplace, which represents the theoretical framework used as the foundation for this investigation. Cross-cultural differences amongst Generation Y and Generation Y within the South African context and the background of the research initiating question are discussed. The future world of work, the research initiating question, aim of the study, objectives of the study, basic methodology of the study, purpose of the study, the research setting, and the significance of the study are explained.

Chapter 2

In this chapter, an overview of the literature (as related to Generation Y) is provided. The constructs under investigation are explored and empirical evidence is provided for the interrelatedness

uncovered. In addition, the argumentation leading to the development of the research propositions is presented.

Chapter 3

In this chapter the methodologies utilised to answer the research-initiating question are described. This includes the data collection method, the sampling approach, research instruments, and the approaches employed for data analysis. This chapter elaborates on the variant of the mixed-method exploratory sequential design employed to answer the research questions. The study was executed in three phases: Phase 1 (qualitative strand), Phase 2 (quantitative strand/pilot phase), Phase 3 (quantitative strand/main study). Each of the three phases is discussed in terms of the (1) research design, (2) sample design and procedure, (3) data collection technique and (4) data analysis technique. The discussion also highlights how the methodologies employed link to the aims and objectives of the study. The data analysis approaches are discussed in full and the findings are presented in the chapter that follows.

Chapter 4

This chapter presents the qualitative findings of Phase 1 of the study. It provides an overview of the analyses that were carried out to define the proposed theoretical model. In this chapter the key themes are presented that informed the refinement of the theoretical model and the eventual structural model. The outcome of Phase 2 of the study, the pilot phase, is also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5

This chapter presents the quantitative findings of Phase 3 of the study – the quantitative data analysis. It provides an overview of the analyses that were carried out to evaluate the propositions proposed in former chapters. In this chapter the psychometric properties, inter-correlations between the constructs, evaluation of the measurement model, evaluation of the structural model, and the evaluation of the research propositions are discussed.

Chapter 6

This chapter discusses the relationships that were empirically identified and provides conclusions from the findings. The findings will contribute to the body of knowledge and provide empirical evidence in terms of the model proposed. The chapter also offers a discussion of the research limitations, recommendations for future research and recommendations to business leaders and management.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Shapiro and Varian (1999, p.3) define information as "essentially, anything that can be digitised—encoded as a stream of bits". With low marginal cost, information that is digitised (i.e. stored in electronic form) can be transmitted, combined, and reconfigured quickly. Conversely, information that is not digitised (i.e. stored on paper) is bulky and expensive to reconfigure and move. Digitised information is the information of the information economy (Gorman et al., 2004). Instruments of the information economy enable users to effectively codify, store, and access information digitally. Some of the main tools that facilitate the information economy are the World Wide Web, multi-user scheduling systems, e-mail, video conferencing, internal knowledge management intranets, chat rooms, and electronic bulletin boards. Electronic communications may be scheduled or spontaneous, and may be active (e.g. online chats, video conferences, e-mail) or passive (e.g. "brochure" websites) (Gorman et al., 2004). As businesses have to grow and strive to remain profitable there is a growing dependence on IT and therefore recruitment and retention of trained and experienced employees is a high priority for both the private and public sector in the United States of America (Soonhee, 2012).

As discussed in Chapter 1, the turnover and retention of skilled IT professionals are huge challenges for business leaders, employers, recruiters and human capital professionals in the IT world, as the turnover of such professionals has a negative impact not only on the organisation’s knowledge and skills, but also on business opportunities (Moore & Burke, 2002). Retention is vital to organisations as IT professionals often hold tacit knowledge about systems and how they interface with business processes. This knowledge tends to be very specialised in nature and is very difficult to replace, which makes turnover among IT professionals extremely expensive (McKnight, Phillips, & Hardgrave, 2009). In this chapter voluntary turnover, intention to quit, as well as employee turnover is discussed. An emergent theory called employee job embeddedness is presented which is argued to have greater prediction capability of turnover compared to traditional turnover theories.

Soonhee (2012) reported that a national survey of state governments in 1999 revealed more than 11 per cent turnover in the IT workforce in 18 states, six to ten per cent in 17 states, and less than five per cent in 12 states. The study analysed the effect of HR practices, such as promotion and advancement opportunities, training and development, supervisory communications, pay and reward satisfaction and family friendly policies. Based on the findings, Soonhee (2012) suggests that for organisations to effectively retain their IT employees, it is important to commit to replacing traditional personnel management practices with strategic HR practices. It would be helpful to research ways

to satisfy the specific wants of IT personnel – it would be helpful to develop individualised development plans (Jiang & Klein, 2002). When looking at the development of these HR practices and who informs them, it usually comes down to leadership. These HR practices often contribute to the perception of the organisational culture and climate which is usually facilitated by leadership (Ledimo, 2015). The impact of leadership, organisational culture, organisational climate and job resources will be further explored in this chapter. The world of work is continuously evolving technologically, but one of the dynamics that is becoming of interest over time is that of generational relations. Generational relations present a modern-day challenge and are receiving attention from scholars with the intent to understand the dynamics they bring. Various generational groups working together can be challenging at times as generational groups differ on many levels, including attitudes, values, beliefs and motivations, and are thus becoming one of the pivotal trends affecting the present workplace (Warner & Sandberg, 2010).

A generation is defined by Kupperschmidt (2001, p. 570) as “an aggregate of people who share birth years, a common location in history and a collective persona”. A “generation” typically spans over a 20-year period, representing roughly the time of birth of a group of people to the time they come to an age where they start having children of their own (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016). People from the same generation are thought to share similar backgrounds and even experience greater levels of ease interacting with one another (Hu, Herrick, & Hodgin, 2004)

A generational group is often referred to as a cohort and their life experiences are often what distinguish one generation from another (Kupperschmidt, 2001). According to Dulin (2008), the term generational cohort is used to locate individual selves within historical time and to make sense of groupings within society. The section that follows offers a perspective on the various generational cohorts and finally an in-depth review of Generation Y and their characteristics.

2.2. A GENERATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

As previously mentioned, it is believed that by the year 2025, according to a study conducted by the American-based company Goldman Sachs, the millennial cohort will dominate and make up three fourths of the workforce (www.icims.com). It is therefore important to gain a better understanding of the nature and characteristics of this particular cohort of millennials. According to Deal, Altman, and Rogelberg (2010), various opinions about millennials exist about who they are, what they think, their values, and who they will become as they advance in years. They further indicate that after a quick online review of blogs, articles in popular press, and peer-reviewed articles, it became clear that many contradictions exist with respect to beliefs about millennials. In order to develop a better understanding of the nature of the millennial cohort, an overview of the various generational cohorts, such as the veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y is presented below.

2.2.1. The Veterans

This generation was born prior to 1946. Their lives were affected by wars, with World War 1 from 1914 to 1918 and the Second World War from 1939 to 1945. They are also known as the 'traditionalists' or silent generation. This generation experienced the effects of the Great Depression and the trauma of the World Wars during their childhood. This generation are in the retirement years of their lives and are highly respectful of authority and hierarchy (Weston, 2001).

2.2.2. Baby Boomers

The Baby Boomer generation was born after the devastation of the Second World War into the post-war prosperity (1946 to 1964) and raised in traditional nuclear families. They witnessed great technological changes and were raised to believe they could change the world by being exposed to and participating in civil rights protests, for instance in the 1960s (Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2010). This cohort observed the shortcomings of political, religious and business leaders, which influenced their lack of respect for authority and social institutions (Kupperschmidt, 2001). Interestingly, from a work ethic and life style perspective, the Baby Boomers display loyalty to their employer and tend to work hard. Furthermore, they are willing and are expected to work with others (Yu & Miller, 2003). In terms of leadership, this cohort accepts the chain of command and expects management to provide a sense of direction to lead them towards the organisational goals. This almost appears as in contrast to the stance taken to authority and social institutions, as indicated by Kupperschmidt (2001). According to Raths (1999), Baby Boomers do not display technological savvy and also do not like change.

2.2.3. Generation X

Generation X was born between 1965 and 1980, with different experiences compared to their older peers (Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2010). According to Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998), the sense of individualism over collectivism of Generation X was a result of growing up with financial, family and societal insecurity, with rapid change, great diversity and a lack of solid traditions. Howe and Strauss (2000) refer to them as the 'latchkey children', where 40 per cent grew up in single home families or where both parents worked. Latchkey children are children who are at home without adult supervision for some part of the day, particularly after school, until the parent returns from work (Karp, Sirias, & Arnold, 1999). Schulman, Kedem, Kaplan, Server and Braja (1998) also refer to latchkey children as children who spend seven hours or more per week caring for themselves. Generation Xs' work ethic and values are reflective of their individualism. They tend to use the team to support their individual efforts and relationships (Karp et al., 1999) and are loyal to their profession rather than their employer (Yu & Miller, 2003). Unlike the Baby Boomer cohort that needs encouragement to take advantage of training opportunities, Generation Xs seek opportunities to develop their skills and are eager to update their knowledge and apply it to their work situations. This

group, from a leadership perspective, has a high need for autonomy and flexibility in their lifestyles and thus needs leadership to a lesser degree (Yu & Miller, 2003). Generation Xs are technically competent, confident, are used to dealing with diversity, change, multi-tasking and competition (Kupperschmidt, 2001, Keavey, 1997). It is argued that Generation X was raised in an era of recession, AIDS crisis and 'hands-off child rearing', also known as "latchkey children". They are therefore characterised as self-reliant and independent (Lavoie-Tremblay et al., 2010).

2.2.4. Generation Y

The Generation Y generation are those individuals born between 1977 and 1998 (approximately 70 million people). According to Stoerger (2009), the exact parameters for dating Generation Y are debatable. In the literature it is evident that there is a variation in the definition of when exactly the millennial generation began, with estimates ranging from 1977 (Tapscott, 1998) to 1982 (Howe & Strauss, 2000). Marais (2013) found that in Europe and America Generation Ys are classified as those who were born between 1980 and 2000. In South Africa members of Generation Y are also classified as those born between 1980 and 2000.

According to Gorman et al. (2004), some researchers agree that the uniqueness of Millennials results largely from technological forces that have affected this generation like no other. The authors also claim Millennials possess a unique millennial competency, which refers to the ability to effectively utilise broadly networked digital communication technologies to speedily and seamlessly accomplish a wide variety of tasks. Their rich experience with Internet communications has given rise to this competency (Gorman et al., 2004).

This generation has an intuitive understanding of technology because if the environment in which they were raised, and hence they bring a greater measure of creativity and innovation to problem-solving than their preceding generations. Technology has always been a core element of their existence; thus they would find it difficult to imagine a world without the Internet or cell phones. Their preference for learning is through online courses and using technology to gain their information and even instruction. Their primary source of communication is through email and text messaging and they find direct communication less necessary than their immediate predecessors (Marais, 2013).

This demographic cohort has been referred to by other researchers as the Net Generation (Tapscott, 1998), Nexters (Zemke et al., 2000), and Geeks (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). They are also referred to as Millennials, NetGen, Gen D, Echo Boomers, Generation Next and Generation Why (Macky et al., 2008; Sheahan, 2006; Van der Walt & Du Plessis, 2010). For the purposes of this study we will continue to refer to this generation as Generation Y.

Generation Y is characterised by being individualistic, innovative, creative, celebrators of diversity, multitaskers who create their own rules. The work environments they appreciate are unstructured

and supportive, with personalised assignments and interactive relationships with their supervisors. They work well in a team environment and prefer close relationships with their supervisors to help them feel more confident and supported (Eisner, 2005; Gardner & Eng, 2005). Generation Ys seek to balance their work and personal lives and would not be prepared to commit to jobs that require long hours, evening or weekend projects. This notion may appear as a lack of commitment to those who believe in giving their hearts and souls to an organisation, but Generation Ys do value achievement and are confident in their abilities to produce within the confines of a regular work week. Generation Ys seek to work in meaningful jobs where they can make an overall contribution to the bottom line of the organisation, whilst having a sense of meaning by feeling that they are assisting the organisation in meeting their overall objectives and goals (Eisner, 2005; Gardner & Eng, 2005).

Aligned with some of the themes regarding Generation Y, research conducted by Wang et al. (2015) has recorded the following global trends for the next generation of worker:

- Graduates who have left universities recently want to be involved in progressive work,
- Make contributions to meaningful work and want to be entrepreneurial within organisations. They are aware and socially conscious.
- Developmental opportunities with clear career paths are what they seek.
- Competitive salaries are what motivate them.
- They seem to value company brands.
- Although they are technologically savvy and aware, they do value personal connections. Generation Ys use their technological grasp to enhance the efficiencies of workplace processes they engage in. Flexible schedules and telecommuting opportunities are part of what they seek and expect.

Wang et al. (2015) found that even though Generation Ys are often labelled as “self-absorbed”, the Generation Y employee is motivated by the same rewards, incentives and recognition as the two previous generations, which are Generation X and the Baby Boomers. They found that the differentiating factor for Generation Y employees is their high level of technological awareness and the impact it has on their way of work. Generation Y employees, according to Wang et al. (2015), have an ardent understanding of the various technologies, as well as those technologies emerging, and find it easy to use social media and other technology platforms to work, research, collaborate and socialise.

Furthermore, the characteristics of Generation Y are important to understand, considering the work environment and leadership they require. Their leadership preferences will be explored later in the chapter compared to that of other generations.

The following section presents the various voluntary turnover theories, as well as the emergent employee job embeddedness theory that could be seen as a theory about why people stay.

2.3. VOLUNTARY TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Intention to quit and voluntary turnover definitions, models and theories are presented next.

Intention to quit refers to an individual's intention to leave his/her employing organisation, indicating a breach in the relationship (Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009). Tett and Meyer (1993) define turnover as a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation.

2.3.1. Theories and models of voluntary turnover

✓ **Voluntary vs involuntary turnover**

Where the decision to leave an organisation is initiated by the employee, it is considered voluntary turnover, and when the employee has no choice in the termination of the employment contract, it is deemed as involuntary turnover. Involuntary turnover may include dismissal, roles being declared redundant, retrenchments, retirement, long-term illness, disability, relocation or death (Mbah & Ikemefuma, 2012).

✓ **Internal vs external turnover**

Internal turnover occurs when an employee exits a current assignment and moves into a new role or function within the organisation. The result of such a move can be experienced as being positive or negative. It could be deemed as a positive experience if the new role results in increased morale because of the change of task and supervisor. A negative experience would be when a new role is project-related, and a disruption is caused in productivity. Human resource practices such as the implementation of a recruitment policy, succession planning, and talent management could be employed to manage and control the effects of internal turnover (Mbah & Ikemefuma, 2012).

✓ **Permanent vs contract staff**

Mbah and Ikemefuma (2012) refer to skilled versus unskilled employees. Employees known as "contract staff" are described as being unskilled, which usually reflects a high turnover rate within organisations. These employees ordinarily do not seek permanent status and leave the organisation at the slightest opportunity of having a more favourable job. Employers do not seem to care about this, as re-hiring these skills does seems not to be difficult. In contrast, high turnover amongst skilled and permanently employed employees poses a serious risk to businesses. This is considered human capital lost to turnover, which would translate into a loss in skills, training and knowledge (Mbah & Ikemefuma, 2012). Contract staffing is however not limited to unskilled employees as in the IT industry Chief Information officers (CIO) are also making use of contract employees who are highly

skilled information technology employees (Kosnik, Wong-MingJi, & Hoover, 2006). Contract employees can therefore be both skilled or unskilled employees."

2.3.2. Turnover theories

March and Simon laid the foundation for future research back in 1958 by identifying the complex psychological processes associated with leaving an organisation and introduced labour market behaviour into the turnover process. They divided the employee's decision-making process into the employee's "decision to perform" organisational activities and "decision to participate".

Price (1977a) defined turnover as the ratio of the number or organisational members who have left the organisation divided by the average number of employees in the organisation during a set period. He developed a causal model where the dependent variable was voluntary leaving from an organisation, where a negative relationship between age and turnover was evident. His findings highlighted the interaction between job satisfaction and opportunities as immediate antecedents of employees leaving an organisation.

Mobley (1977) theorised that the immediate sequential linkages between satisfaction and leaving are thinking of leaving, evaluating the expected utility of searching and the costs of quitting, searching for alternatives, comparison of alternatives and the present job, and the intention to leave. Further findings indicated job attitudes are most directly linked to withdrawal cognitions associated with the decision to leave and only indirectly related to actual turnover behaviour; job satisfaction precedes commitment; and the search process precedes intention to leave.

Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978) introduced the concept of withdraw tendency, which includes thinking of quitting, job searching, intention of turnover and voluntary turnover behaviour occurring.

Commitment is significantly and negatively related to turnover, with many labour market, organisational, job and individual variables being part of the leaving process. Various aspects of the work environment (supervision practices and job content factors) influence employees' affective responses (job satisfaction and organisational commitment), which in turn may initiate withdrawal cognitions and decision processes that are then related directly to an individual's likelihood to turnover.

Steers and Mowday (1981) provided a comprehensive model that theorised about the sequence that leads to employees staying with or leaving the organisation. They proposed that the immediate antecedent of an employee's leaving is the intention to leave and seeking alternative job opportunities. Firstly, job expectations, conceptualised as met expectations and values, influence an individual's affective responses to a job. Secondly, affective responses involve desire and intention

to stay or leave, with the choice depending on a variety of non-work influences, such as the spouse's job and time left for the family. Finally, an intention to leave an organisation leads to actual leaving. They theorised that search processes follow intention to leave and considered job attitudes, other than satisfaction, as antecedents to an employee leaving. They emphasised non-work influences affecting intentions to leave, and recognised the possibility that dissatisfied employees may try to change a situation before leaving an organisation.

Price and Mueller (1981) expanded on the model by Price (1977b) and added the component "intent to stay" and found it had an impact on turnover. They further suggested that the size of the organisation should be included in the causal model, because increased size reduced turnover due to more pay, more opportunity for promotion, and it increases opportunities within the organisation.

Lee and Mitchell created an unfolding model, a retrospective classificatory account of voluntary turnover that treats quitting as a decision process, by emphasising rational choice based on image theory (Beach, 1990). The person uses three types of images or schematic knowledge structures for decision-making. These relate to values (the decision-maker's principles), trajectories (desired goals) and strategies (how to achieve these goals). An option is adopted or rejected depending on its compatibility or fit with subsets of images. They added the concept of shock, which is a specific event that prompts people to consider leaving as "part of an on-going context". A script is defined as a pre-existing plan of action. The model shows how people leave in different and distinct ways represented by five mutually exclusive decision paths. They theorised that people quit in five prototypical ways and that dissatisfaction can lead to quitting after search/evaluation and an employment offer being received. Table 2.1 illustrates the decision-making paths and provides a summary of the five decision paths.

Table 2.1
Paths by which the turnover decision may unfold over time

	Initiating event	**Cognitive/ emotional process**	**Search behaviour**	**Quit decision**
Path 1	Shock (e.g. pregnancy)	Prompts quitting script enactment	None	Automatic
Path 2	Shock (e.g. unpleasant new boss)	Comparison of shock to images leads to high dissatisfaction	None	Fairly automatic
Path 3	Shock (e.g. unexpected job offer)	Comparison of shock to images leads to relative dissatisfaction	Search for alternatives	Deliberate
Path 4a	No shock	Accumulating dissatisfaction	None	Fairly automatic
Path 4b	No shock	Accumulating dissatisfaction	Search for alternatives	Deliberate

Note. Adapted from "The psychology of voluntary employee turnover", by Harman, W. S., Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Felps, W., Bradley, P., & Owens, B. P., 2007, *Association for Psychological Science,16*(1), 52.

In Table 2.1, moving from left to right, paths 1-3 include an initiating event (shock) that leads to the quit decision. Paths 4a and 4b do not contain shocks; instead, the process begins with accumulating dissatisfaction that leads to the turnover decision. The reaction to the shock can be either cognitive or emotional, which may or may not trigger a behaviour that may lead to the decision to quit. According to Harman, Lee, Mitchell, Felps, Bradley, and Owens (2007), the unfolding model identifies incoming information that generates image considerations as shocks, leading the individual to the decision to leave his or her job. The shock can be the result of internal or external factors and it can also be negative, positive or neutral in nature. The first path is where a pre-existing script exists, for example the person may decide to leave the job based on the knowledge that she is pregnant. Once the information on the outcome of the pregnancy test becomes available, the enactment on the decision is executed and the decision is automatic, based on the incoming information. In the case of path two, the person's decision to leave may be enacted when the shock is triggered, without considering job alternatives. In this case the person's values, goals or strategic images may have been violated, for example, by having an unpleasant new boss. The third path in the unfolding model contains a shock that triggers an evaluation, for example receiving an unexpected job offer. The information in the shock is compatible with images and, if more favourable, the individual considers leaving. This path can lead to deliberate searches for alternative jobs and ultimately leads the person to the decision to leave. As previously mentioned, paths 4a and 4b do not contain shocks, but represent an accumulation of dissatisfaction over time. For example, path 4a describes a situation where the person's job satisfaction is so low that s/he decides to leave without considering alternatives and the decision is fairly automatic. Path 4b, on the other hand, represents the more traditional view of turnover, where the satisfaction of the individual is decreasing, which leads to a deliberate search, evaluation of alternatives, intention to quit, and ultimately leaving the job.

According to Rahman and Nas (2013), it is difficult to claim which one of the theories offers the best explanation for turnover behaviour.

The purpose of the current study was to investigate what leads to the intention to quit and what are the antecedents to the intention to quit for Generation Y employees in the IT industry. According to researchers such as Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and Igbaria and Greenhaus (1992), intentions are the most immediate determinants of actual behaviour. The validity of studying intentions in the workplace can also be drawn from Sager's (1991) longitudinal study of salespeople in which intention to quit was found to discriminate effectively between leavers and stayers. However, while it is reasonable to argue that intentions are an accurate indicator of subsequent behaviour, there is limited understanding of what determines such intentions.

Employee turnover has a significant impact on an organisation at a social and economic level, hence the attention paid to it by researchers over the years. Many researchers argue that high turnover

levels have a negative effect on the profitability of organisations if not managed carefully (Hogan, 1992). According to Sutherland (2000), replacement costs include engaging the external market for suitable replacements, the selection process with shortlisted applicants, the onboarding and induction of successful candidates, and the formal and informal training of new employees until they reach performance levels equivalent to those who have quit. The replacement costs include the costs that relate to management's time, potential loss of sales, loss of intellectual capital and relational capital (Meaghan& Bontis, 2002). It is believed that voluntary turnover not only has an economic effect on an organisation but a social and psychological effect as well (Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012).

For the purposes of the current research intention to quit will be defined as:

It is the intentional activation of the psychological withdrawal from an organisation as a result of an event or dissatisfaction which may translate into the actual act of leaving the organisation.

The following section examines employee turnover, intention to quit, and various studies that were conducted on the antecedents to intention to quit in South Africa.

2.4. INTENTION TO QUIT (ITQ) AND EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

As mentioned, employee turnover has a significant social and economic impact on organisations, and high turnover levels can have a negative effect on their profitability (Hogan, 1992). Voluntary turnover represents the emigration of human capital investment from the organisation, which could prove to be expensive from a business perspective as it is usually followed by manifold costs to the organisation through the subsequent replacement process (Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2012).

Kirschenbaum and Weisberg (1994) formulated the labour turnover model. Job search and intention to leave a job, according to their model, form an important link in the decision-making process associated with actual labour turnover. The model suggests a causal path in which passive search occurs before the crystallisation of a turnover intent and, after a turnover intent has emerged, an 'active' search begins. When an active search brings about coalescence between perceived and actual opportunities, a job change may occur. Job search and intent to leave were found to be significant and positively related.

Allen and Griffeth (1999) looked at an integrated multi-routes model where they discussed the relationship between employees' performance level and their withdrawal tendency and proposed three analytical routes. In this model, the employees' performance character will influence their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Their performance character will also influence the turnover variable of the perceived ease of mobility (Allen & Griffeth, 1999). According to Berkowitz and Hoppe (2009, p. 132), character is defined as a "set of psychological characteristics that motivate and enable individuals to function as competent moral agents". Performance character has

qualities that permit individuals to adjust their thoughts and actions in ways that serve the achievement of a certain goal (Seider, Gilbert, Novick, & Gomez, 2013).

Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2000) explored the person-job fit and person-organisation fit and found that both had a unique impact on intention to quit. Person-organisation fit was a better predictor of intention to quit than person-job fit.

Maertz and Campion (2004) highlight eight motivational categories or forces of attachment and withdrawal. The eight categories are: affective forces, contractual forces, constituent forces, alternative forces, calculative forces, normative forces, behavioural forces and moral forces. Related to the motivational forces of attachment or withdrawal are the decisions that result in the intention to quit or actual turnover. The eight motivational forces of attachment and withdrawal are detailed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2
Forces of psychological attachment and withdrawal

Type of Force	**Psychological Motive for Attachment or Withdrawal**
Affective: Existing affective response to an organisation.	Attachment to the organisation is the result of membership offering enjoyment and positive emotions currently. When negative emotions are experienced because of the job or organisation membership, withdrawal could be triggered.
Contractual: Obligations to an organisation because of psychological contract or violations of contract.	A need to fulfil perceived responsibilities in the existing psychological contract through remaining with the organisation, or the need to end the psychological contract or to respond to the violations thereof by leaving.
Constituent: Commitment to individuals or teams in an organisation.	A need to maintain or end relationships with constituents by either staying or leaving the organisation. This need can be the result of various motivational forces. The collective force (to stay or leave) can be the result of relationships with one or many constituents.
Alternative: Perceived alternatives to existing job.	An employee's self-efficacy beliefs pertaining to their ability to secure alternatives, in addition to the perceived certainty and quality of alternative options.
Calculative: Expected future satisfaction associated with uninterrupted service to the organisation	The perceived future benefits and possibilities associated with the continued membership with the organisation. High expectancy of future benefit increases the psychological attachment; in contrast, low expectancy of future benefits increases the withdrawal tendency.
Normative: Decision to leave or stay with an organisation derived from the expectations of others.	A need to satisfy the expectations of family members or associates outside of the organisation pertaining to leaving or staying. The pressure can be the result of one or many parties and the motivation to subscribe to the expectation varies.
Behavioural: Commitment to an organisation based on behaviour	A need to avoid the explicit and/ or the psychological costs of leaving. The costs associated with leaving may be introduced because of membership-related behaviours in the past or enforced by policies relating to length of service. The perceived costs can vary from zero to a significant value.
Moral: Moral or ethical values about leaving	A need for congruency between behaviour and values relating to leaving. Internalised values can be found at any point of the continuum of "leaving a job is bad and persistence is a virtue" to "regular change in jobs is good; remaining with an organisation too long may end up in being stagnated."

Note. Adapted from "Profiles in quitting: Integrating process and content turnover theory", by Maertz, C. P., Jr. & Campion, M. A., 2004, *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(4), 566-582. doi:10.2307/20159602

Maertz and Campion (2004) describe four decision-types leading to comparison quitting based on availability of another job: pre-planned quitting based on a definitive advance plan; and conditional quitting based on a conditional plan such as gaining required work experience. Table 2.3 presents a summary of the four decision types.

Table 2.3
Summary of decision types

Decision Type	Job Offer in Hand?	Advance Plan	Description
Quitting impulsively: leaving due to not enough attachment	No	None	The motives for leaving an organisation exceed the motives for staying.
Quitting comparatively: leaving due to having an alternative job	Yes	None	At the time of making the final decision of leaving, the employee compares and favours the alternative job over the existing job.
Quitting that is pre-planned: leaving as a result of having a definite advance plan	Maybe	Absolute plan to quit, is a plan made well in advance of leaving, which is triggered when a specific time comes, or event takes place.	A definite plan is made at the time of the final decision to leave. On the arrival of the specified time or a specific event the employee would leave immediately.
Quitting based on a condition: leaving due to having a conditional plan	Maybe	Indefinite conditional plan to leave if and when a particular event occurs in the future.	Conditional plans are made to leave. An event happens where the conditions are judged to trigger the final decision to leave or not.

Note. Adapted from “Profiles in quitting: Integrating process and content turnover theory”, by Maertz, C. P., Jr. & Campion, M. A., 2004, *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(4), 566-582. doi:10.2307/20159602

As seen in the table above only comparative quitting happens when the employee has an offer in his or her hand and the decision to leave is based on the comparative analysis between the benefits of the new job offer and the existing job. The decision to quit impulsively indicates that the person has not made alternative plans as with the pre-planned quitting which is triggered by an event. The last type of quitting is based on a condition whereby the person chooses to leave based on the occurrence or none occurrence of an event for example promotion.

There are various turnover models that have been developed by researchers in an attempt to understand voluntary turnover. The following section offers insight into the traditional voluntary turnover model. Figure 2.1 presents an example of a traditional voluntary turnover model (Becker & Cropanzano, 2011).

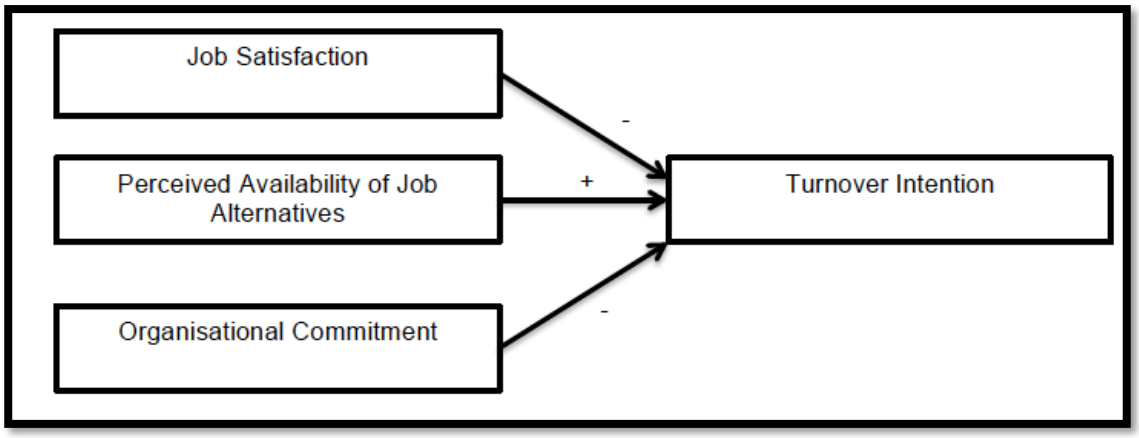


Figure 2.1: Traditional voluntary turnover

Adapted from "Job embeddedness versus traditional models if voluntary turnover prediction", by Besich, J., 2005, unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Texas: University of North Texas.

Many studies have been conducted to determine the validity of the traditional model of turnover consisting of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and perceived availability of job alternatives (Besich, 2005). According to Lee and Mitchell (1994) and Mitchell, Holtom, and Lee (2001a), the issue with this model lies within the percentage of the variance explained by this model (between 15-25 percent) in voluntary turnover and intention to quit.

Taking a closer look at IT-specific employee turnover, a study conducted by Kim (2012) in a governmental IT department explored employee turnover intentions and found that all the variables included in the study significantly affect turnover intentions. The variables that were explored were promotion and advancement opportunities, training and development, supervisory communications, pay and reward satisfaction, and family-friendly policies. Opportunities for advancement and promotion opportunities had the highest regression coefficient with male IT professionals, and family-friendly policies had the highest coefficient with females.

According to Crainer and DearLove (1999), young employees are more inclined to leave the organisation when they are presented with good opportunities and search for other opportunities when they feel that their needs are not being met by their existing employer.

There appears to be a difference in the beliefs pertaining to the role of psychological contracts amongst generations as well. Psychological contracts are defined by Rousseau (1989) as a person's belief pertaining to the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement of the person and another party. Older employees' perception of a psychological contract differs from that of younger employees, which influences their reaction towards it. Older employees believe that the psychological contract is of such a nature that loyalty towards the employer and hard work is incentivised by job security and steady increases. In contrast, the psychological contract is perceived by young employees as counting on the employer's loyalty, which is viewed as risky. As a result,

they choose to take responsibility for their career and are geared to making quick career transitions and seizing opportunities and taking full advantage of them, especially those opportunities that are unexpected (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008).

D'Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) recognised that their literature review suggested that younger employees were less likely to believe that loyalty is rewarded. They called for caution when interpreting these findings, taking cognisance of the fact that most of the reviewed studies were conducted in the United States. However, their own study was conducted in Europe, and hence they argued that it could not be assumed that these findings were generalisable across continents. Part of the reason for this observation is that they perceived a difference in the development of the labour market in terms of speed and volatility, when comparing North America with Europe. Further to this, they viewed Europe as having a social market economy due to political influences and the United States as having a pure market economy. These factors they believed could have led to the different picture of Europe in terms of the generational differences in intention to remain with an organisation as opposed to the generational differences in the USA. The same could be said for South African generational differences, given the South African history of apartheid.

Mitchell et al. (2001a) argued that the ability of job embeddedness to predict turnover was significantly greater than that of the traditional model. Supporting this finding, a study conducted by Besich (2005) on the job embeddedness of IT professionals found that job embeddedness would improve the predictive power above and beyond that of the traditional model, which includes organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived job alternatives. The embeddedness construct originated from the extant literature with the underlying premise that certain aspects of the individual's job act as a "web" and will restrain an employee from leaving their organisation (Besich, 2005). Although several studies have been conducted on employee turnover and why people leave, limited research has been conducted on the validity or relevance of employee job embeddedness and why people stay in various populations (Besich, 2005; Kilburn & Kilburn, 2008; Zhao & Liu, 2010). Holmes, Chapman and Baghurst (2013) also emphasise the shortage of literature on job embeddedness and encourage future research on the construct. They suggest that empirical studies on job embeddedness, as it relates to recruitment and retention, should exhibit an understanding of class differences, their diversity, work relationships, and generational differences, including Baby Boomers and Generations X and Y. The current theories on human resource management and job embeddedness necessitate further studies that (a) make provision for proactively identifying when employees are becoming un-embedded in an organisation, based on their verbalised intentions to quit, (b) utilise the job embeddedness model to assist management in placing employees in roles within which they display the highest level of fit, and (c) help reduce high turnover costs by recognising and acting upon employee intentions to quit, instead of retroactively trying to manage

the phenomenon (Holmes et al., 2013). Job embeddedness is a relatively new concept and limited empirical work exists with respect to its relevance to various workforce populations or cultures.

A secondary aim of this study was to explore the relevance of the embeddedness theory within the context of Generation Y employees and to determine whether it could be regarded as a salient antecedent of intention to quit for this group compared to other antecedents. It is believed that this recent addition to the research on voluntary turnover is substantially different from many of the existing models of turnover in literature available today (Besich, 2005).

2.5. EMPLOYEE JOB EMBEDDEDNESS (EJE)

In the following section employee job embeddedness as an individual variable will be theoretically reviewed, investigated and discussed.

JE has been defined as the fit, links, and sacrifice between an employee, their organization, and their community (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). When used in this context, JE represents the totality of reasons an employee would remain at the present job.

Lev and Koslowsky (2015, p. 83) refer to job embeddedness as "…an aggregate concept, considerably more encompassing than other competing attitudinal indicators of organizational behavior. It focuses on the net or social web in which a worker becomes involved during his or her employment."

Felps, Mitchell, Heckman, Lee, Thomas, Holtom, and Harman (2009) state that the phenomenon of employee turnover and why people quit has been explored by social scientists on a psychological level, which is deemed to be at the micro level, with job satisfaction and organisational commitment as examples. At a macro level, the organisational and economic level, examples include particular industries or localities in an attempt to explain how market forces such as unemployment rates or job supply and demand affect the frequency with which people leave. They note that, despite the plethora of available research, it is surprising that very little work has been done on how social relationships affect turnover. Pfeffer (1991) claims that the bulk of the research is focused on the individual's attitudes as a precursor, without including the influence that one's co-workers or the social structure have on one's decision to leave. It is believed that, in contrast, job embeddedness includes the social structure within the organisation and in the community.

Holmes et al. (2013, p. 802) defined employee job embeddedness as "employees who become part of the social web that connects them to an organisation or social network, ultimately reducing turnover costs".

For the purposes of the current research job embeddedness will be defined as:

Job embeddedness is the web that creates the motivation to stay in the organisation depending on the strength of the number of links the employee has in the organisation and society, how well the employee fits in with the organisation and community and the perceived benefits in the organisation and society they would be sacrificing if they would leave.

In the current research project, the focus will fall on the on-the-job embeddedness and not off-the-job embeddedness.

2.5.1. Sub-dimensions of job embeddedness (JE)

Job embeddedness is realised through meeting the needs and wellbeing of those employed by an organisation and consists of three elements or dimensions, namely organisational links, organisational fit and perceived organisational sacrifice. These dimensions have both on-the-job (organisational) and off-the-job (community) facets, according to Mitchell et al. (2001a). Links connect employees to groups and teams; fit seeks to represent the perspectives of individuals on how they fit into a job, the organisation and the community at large; and organisational sacrifice refers to the changes or transitions associated with a job if they were to leave the organisation (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Ezrez, 2001b).

According to Mitchell et al. (2001b), organisational fit is broadly defined as the perceived congruency between the employee's personal values, goals, career aspirations and those of the organisation and how the skills, knowledge and abilities of the employee are aligned. The same applies in terms of community fit, where the compatibility is deemed to be between the employee's personal values, knowledge, skills and abilities and the requirements of the job and the culture of the organisation. The degree of organisational fit is referred to as the "chemistry" between the individual and the organisation.

Organisational links refer to those formal and informal psychological and social connections that the employee has within the organisation. It is believed that these connections act as strands that embed employees in the organisational web. Therefore, the greater the number of formal and informal links the employee has within the organisation, the stronger the link with the organisation.

Perceived organisational sacrifice relates to those tangibles and intangibles that an employee feels he or she will need to give up if they were to leave the organisation. These perceived losses could be both financial and psychological. Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney, and Taylor (2009) believe that managers can employ a number of strategies and tactics, based on various HR practices, to create deeper links, make a better fit, and possibly develop greater potential sacrifices for employees, should they decide to explore or pursue other employment opportunities.

Furthermore, the construct of job embeddedness has sub-dimensions that include on and off-the-job causes of turnover considered important antecedents to employee turnover (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). Mitchell et al. (2001b) refer to the sub-dimensions as the organisational and community dimensions, which are essentially the same thing. On-the-job embeddedness refers to how enmeshed an employee is in the organisation where he or she is employed. Off-the-job embeddedness refers to how entrenched the employee is within his or her community (Crossley, Bennet, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007). Each of the sub-dimensions of embeddedness is represented by three underlying facets: links refer to the formal and informal connections people have in the organisation, the location and relationships with other people; fit refers to the compatibility or comfort the person experiences within work and non-work environments; whereas sacrifice refers to the cost of material or psychological benefits the person may forfeit by leaving a job or community (Crossley et al., 2007).

Job embeddedness examines the aspects of the organisation and community that have been missed or ignored in previous research. In contrast to focusing generally on the attitudes and perceptions of the employees, which often are not directly under the employer's control, embeddedness focuses on the aspects that the organisation can potentially influence (Besich, 2005). Job Embeddedness has two factors namely on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness. Off-the-job embeddedness is what is outside of the control of the employer as it refers to the informal connections between the employee and his/her family and friends. In terms of fit the off-the-job components refers to his/her environment (such a weather, amenities, and general culture) – these being all out of the control of the organisation. The last sub-construct of sacrifice in the off-the-job embeddedness refers to the community sacrifice (Mitchell et al., 2001; Holtom & O'Neill, 2004). This again could refer to leaving a safe community, and the respect earned in a community, which could be deemed as the cost anticipated as a result of leaving a certain community.

Research indicates that, within the unfolding model of employee turnover, leaving the organisation occurs over time and can be trigged by several reasons.

Figure 2.2 below depicts how the sub-dimensions of job embeddedness, namely organisational links, organisational fit and organisational sacrifice, are connected to turnover intention.

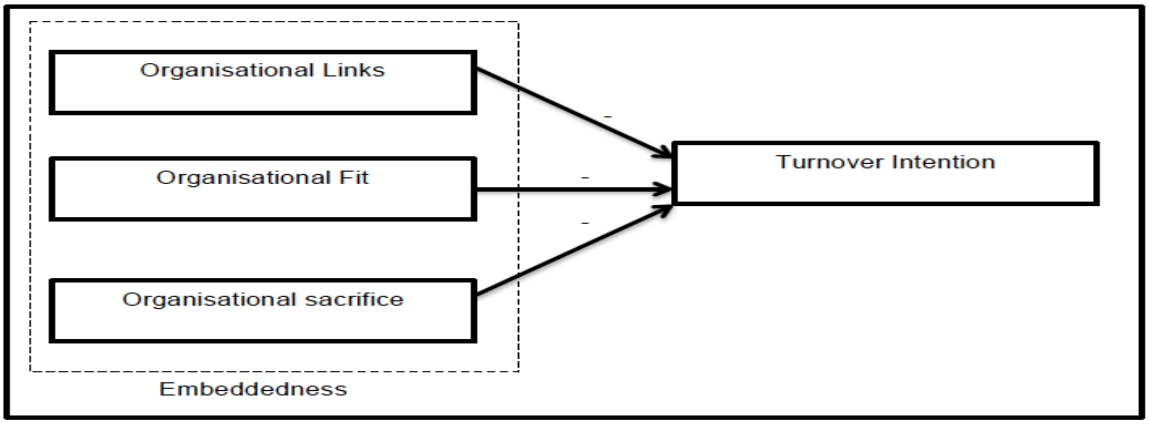


Figure 2.2: Job embeddedness

Adapted from"Job embeddedness versus traditional models if voluntary turnover prediction", by Besich, J. 2005, unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Texas: University of North Texas.

According to Besich (2005), the job embeddedness construct is built on three lines of thought. Firstly, it takes into consideration the impact of non-work factors in the prediction of the voluntary turnover and attachment. These non-work factors could include family/work conflict, extramural activities such as church, community involvement, or political ties, etc. Secondly, it includes quantifiable organisation-based characteristics in the job embeddedness model that are essential enough to influence voluntary turnover. These organisation-based characteristics refer to teams, project groups, or some other work-related groups. This is an important concept from an IT perspective, as it is often the case that IT professionals work in several teams to deliver project-type work. Lastly, the overall umbrella assumption of job embeddedness is that sometimes people leave organisations for reasons other than attitudinal justification or job satisfaction, as advanced by the voluntary turnover model. It is believed that within the job embeddedness line of thought voluntary turnover can be motivated by various events such as unsolicited job offers, spousal relocations, and unavoidable family challenges (Lee, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999).

Besich (2005) postulates an overlap between the traditional model of voluntary turnover and job embeddedness, which manifests itself especially within the organisational commitment dimension. Job embeddedness does not, however, overtly measure organisational commitment, neither does it measure job satisfaction, nor the perceived availability of job alternatives. Unfortunately, limited work has been done on testing the validity or relevance of job embeddedness in different populations (Besich, 2005).

The following section presents a summary of empirical studies that were conducted on employee job embeddedness.

2.5.2. Overview of a few empirical studies conducted on employee job embeddedness (EJE)

Holmes et al. (2013) conducted a qualitative study to provide insight into how HR practitioners perceive and describe their experiences of employee job embeddedness (why they stay with the organisation). Their study was conducted amongst HR practitioners at a government organisation supporting a community of civil servants in the United States of America.

Five themes emerged from the study that were linked to the elements of employee job embeddedness, namely organisational fit, organisational links and perceived sacrifice. The following themes became apparent under each of the elements. Organisational fit and links: recruitment, staffing, classification, good leadership, career advancement, training and mentoring. Under perceived organisational sacrifice, the following were associated with a high level of embeddedness: years of employment with the organisation, job security and location. Lack of training, lack of mentoring, lack of knowledgeable leadership and lack of communication were associated with low embeddedness. The findings also indicated that low embeddedness was indicative of some potential detachment from the social web because of unsatisfactory levels of training and mentorship. Although the authors recognised the limitations of their study and the limited generalisability, given the qualitative methodology, job embeddedness had positive correlations with career advancement, valued HR work and job security. The study also showed that perceptions precipitating leaving included factors such as lack of leadership, lack of respect, seeking a more family-friendly location, job location and hiring shortages (Holmes et al., 2013).

In one of the first studies to examine how job embeddedness develops and what factors cause employees to be embedded in their jobs, Bergiel et al. (2009) postulated that job embeddedness is a mediator of the relationship between human resources practices and employees' intention to quit. The four human resources practices that were evaluated were compensation, supervisor support, growth opportunities and training, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Their findings indicated that job embeddedness fully mediated compensation and growth opportunities and partially mediated supervisor support, but did not mediate training in relation to employees' intention to quit. They encouraged future research to utilise diversified samples and to continue to expand research on job embeddedness into further areas of human resource practices (Bergiel et al., 2009).

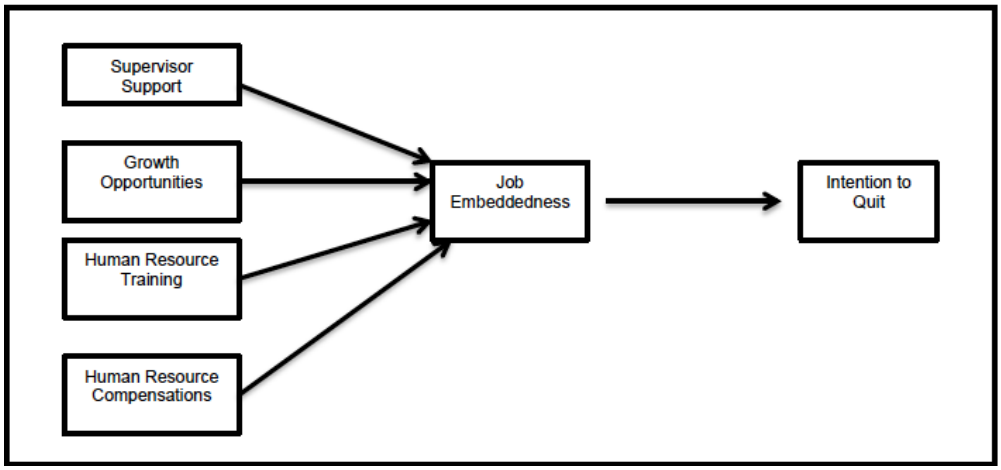


Figure 2.3: Job embeddedness and intention to quit

Adapted from "Human resource practices, job embeddedness and intention to quit", by Bergiel, E. B., Nguyen, V. Q., Clenney, B. F., & Taylor, G. S., 2009),*Management Research News, 32*(3), 205-219.

Wheeler, Harris, and Harvey (2010) focused upon a sample of alumni from a private Mid-Western university and obtained 282 responses from various disciplines and industries. Figure 2.4 presented below illustrates their theoretical model, which included leader-member exchange (LMX), human resource management (HRM) effectiveness, job embeddedness (JE) and intent to turnover. In their study, they differentiated between organisational job embeddedness (OJE) and community job embeddedness (CJE), based on work done by Mitchell (2001b) and colleagues, who believed that if the above is combined it can predict voluntary employee turnover.

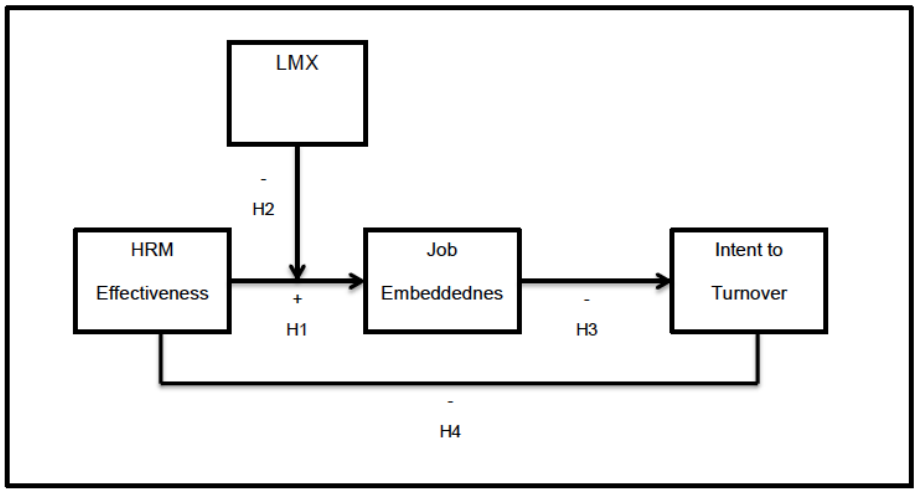


Figure 2.4: Human resource management effectiveness and job embeddedness

Adapted from "Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover", by Mitchell, T. R, Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablynski, C.J., & Erez, M., 2001b, *Academy of Management Journal, 44*(6), 1102-1121.

The findings of the study indicated that HRM effectiveness enhances job embeddedness, and HRM effectiveness and LMX are positively related to the organisational and community job

embeddedness. The highest levels of OJE occur when HRM effectiveness and LMX are at the highest level, while the greatest change in OJE (organisational job embeddedness) occurs when participants report low quality LMX relationships, but high HRM effectiveness. Support for the main effect of HRM effectiveness on CJE, but no statistical main effect for the LMX relationship quality or the moderating influence of LMX with HRM effectiveness on CJE was found (Wheeler et al., 2010).

Fatima, Shafique, Qadeer, and Ahmed (2015) also investigated the impact of HR practices and the mediating effect of job embeddedness, perceived organisational support and trust on organisational citizenship behaviour and task performance, as depicted in the following theoretical model (Figure 2.5).

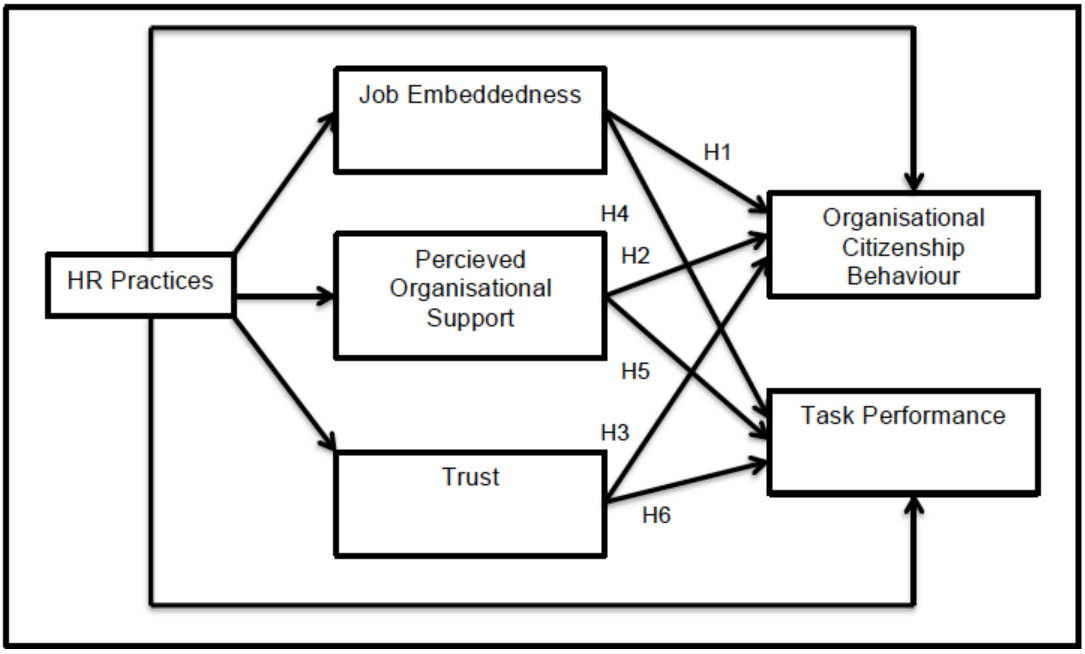


Figure 2.5: Taxonomy of employee performance and job embeddedness

Adapted from "HR Practices and employee performance relationship in higher education: Mediating role of job embeddedness, perceived organisational support and trust", by Fatima, M., Shafique, M., Qadeer, F., & Ahmad, R., 2015, *Pakistan Journal of Statistics and Operation Research, 11*(3), 421-439.

In this study, employee performance was represented by two dimensions, namely task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour, as indicated in Figure 2.5. The model was tested amongst faculty members of various university campuses in Pakistan with a total of 203 respondents. The results of the study indicated that job embeddedness, perceived organisational support and trust mediate the relationship between HR practices and employees' performance. The researchers recommended that the results be evaluated in a longitudinal design and in other sectors, industries and countries.

Within the South African context neither Generation Y nor job embeddedness has received much attention. The following section reviews very limited research found on job the embeddedness of Generation Y employees within the South African context.

2.6. JOB EMBEDDEDNESS (JE) AND GENERATION Y

Very few studies have been conducted on job embeddedness with Generation Y employees as the target sample. One study was found where the researchers explored the relationship between fun in the workplace and job embeddedness among Generation Y employees. Interestingly, their findings indicated that fun job responsibilities, perceived career opportunities and praise and rewards, in that order, were considered as the predictors of embeddedness amongst Generation Y employees (Tews, Michel, Xu, & Drost, 2015).

Unlike the limited research that was found for Generation Y and job embeddedness, the intention to quit amongst Generation Y in South Africa has been explored several times.

As mentioned before Job Embeddedness was a concept that originated out of the employee turnover studies that examined the ease of movement between job alternatives. Scholars theorised that as employees become more and more dissatisfied, they start their search for job alternatives and after comparing the alternatives to their current position, either choose to stay or voluntarily leave (Reitz, 2014). Two of the most important attitudinal factors predicting intention to leave are job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The relationship between these two antecedents and perceived job alternatives, job search and voluntary turnover were found to be consistent, but weak (Hayes et al., 2012). Although there is a substantial overlap in the traditional attitude models of job turnover, Job embeddedness is different in that it focusses on the collective non-affective reasons why an employee would leave an organisation. The subconstructs or dimensions of job embeddedness (organisational links, sacrifice and fit has not been examined in relation to intention to quit amongst Generation Y software development employees in the South African context.

On the basis of the preceding discussion, the following propositions could be defined:

Proposition 1:

The job embeddedness dimension of organisational links will be negatively correlated with turnover intention.

Proposition 2:

The job embeddedness dimension of organisational sacrifice will be negatively correlated with turnover intention.

Proposition 3:

The job embeddedness dimension of organisational fit will be negatively correlated with turnover intention.

According to Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) the concept of job embeddedness has been developed on the principle of voluntary employee withdrawal and clarifies why employees wish to stay in organisations. According to Holtom, Mitchell, and Lee (2006), when employees see their leaders as fair, turnover intention is reduced and job embeddedness reduces intention to quit even further, which can be seen as a moderating effect. For this reason, job embeddedness has been investigated as a moderator to intention to quit which is discussed next.

2.7. JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AS A MODERATOR

In a study conducted by Akgunduz and Cin (2015) the moderating role of job embeddedness in the relationship between distributive justice and manager trust on turnover intentions was examined. The study was conducted in Turkey amongst employees working in eleven hotels. The findings of their study indicated that there were no moderating effects of job embeddedness on the negative effect of manager trust on turnover intentions. On the other hand, they found that the interaction of distributive justice and job embeddedness had a negative effect on turnover intentions. Another insight was that when employees perceived their managers' decisions as fair, the employees' intention to quit decreased and their job embeddedness increased.

Karatepe and Shahriari (2012) studied job embeddedness as a moderator and found that the negative relationship between the organisational justice dimensions and turnover intentions is strengthened by job embeddedness. The results suggested that job embeddedness strengthens the negative effects of distributive, procedural and interactional justice, which are the dimensions of organisational justice, on turnover intentions. In other words, the negative effects of the dimensions of organisational justice on turnover are stronger amongst employees with higher job embeddedness – meaning that they would be less likely to leave.

Investigations of job embeddedness as a moderator is sparse and a void has been identified (Akgunduz & Cin, 2015). In a careful analysis conducted by Karatepe and Shahriari (2012) they confirmed that very little is known about job embeddedness as a moderator. The impact of job embeddedness as a moderator amongst Generation Y employees in the IT profession in South Africa has not been explored before. The current researcher therefore regards investigating the moderating role of job embeddedness within a conceptual model on intention to quit as an important pursuit.

In the next section leadership and the preferred leadership style of Generation Y employees will be explored.

2.8. LEADERSHIP AND GENERATION Y

There has been a plethora of publications covering the concept of leadership. Additionally, academics, pupils, historians, psychologists, management gurus, motivational speakers, and political hacks have exhaustively explored leadership (George, 2007), yet many critics contend that today's leaders have failed people, which prompts the question: What type of leadership is required for the 21st century?

Historically individuals have undergone a global revolution that necessitates the need for a change from old-style management to what Adair (2009) refers to as the concept of business leadership. The workplace of the 21st century faces a distinct set of employees who seek meaning in their work and not simply to be directed, which is in conflict with the old-school leadership, based on top-down, control and command, we-will-set-the-rules-and-you-follow approach (Adair, 2009; George, 2007). Hence, the 21st century workplace requires a type of leadership that would meet the needs of a different generation of employee, namely Generation Y.

The Generation Y generation has emerged as a force that will shape the social and economic dynamics of the next decade (Gorman et al., 2004) and if this is so, what type of leadership will elicit the best from them? According to Kennedy et al. (2007), a number of assumptions have been made about Generation Y, both about their attitudes towards learning and their interaction with new technology. For example, it is said that Generation Ys expect immediate answers, fast access to information, and are multitaskers who might be seen as having short attention spans. Furthermore, it is said that Generation Ys expect technology to be an intricate part of their education (Philip, 2007). However, Kennedy et al. (2007) argue that such generalisations and assumptions disregard the possibility that a more complex mix of skills and experiences with technologies might exist. For example, they found that 55 per cent of first year students who participated in their study have never read a blog and 73 per cent of them have not created a blog of their own. They therefore further caution against accepting claims that new technologies and tools will address disengagement or dissatisfaction of Generation Y students at higher education institutions. "These research results indicate that we must be wary of over generalising the distinctive features of this generation, as individuals or as a group, their lifestyles or their learning styles based on assumptions about technology use or preferences" (Kennedy et al., 2007, p.522). To understand what type of leadership is required for the 21st century, it is essential to reflect on the definition of leadership, the theories developed around leadership, the behaviour of the new generation of employees, and their leadership requirements. The following section presents a view on the above-mentioned subjects.

2.8.1. Contextualising leadership

Attention has been focused on the development of leadership through the centuries and generations. According to Goffee and Jones (as quoted in Higgs, 2003), there has been an explosion of literature on leadership. In 1999 alone, more than 2 000 books on leadership were published.

Researchers have grappled with the concept of leadership and it is difficult to find a precise definition that has universal acceptance (Wallace, 2003). Bennis (1994) believes leadership is likened to beauty, which is difficult to define, but is recognisable when you see it. Wren (1995, p. 27) supports this notion by describing leadership, as "…one of the most widely talked about subjects and at the same time one of the most elusive and puzzling".

What defines leadership and how is it recognised? From an industry perspective, Wallace (2003) refers to leadership as a dynamic activity that is required to adapt to different environments and new challenges. The IT space is ever evolving and adaptation to diverse challenges and new challenges is becoming vital; therefore, strong leadership is essential. According to Thite (2000), leadership is a crucial element of performance in IT projects. Rowley's (1997) interpretation of leadership links the concept with a sense of direction and vision and imparting that vision. For Rowley, this interpretation included working with others in teams, whilst maintaining relationships and a process that requires care, relentlessness and paying attention to detail. Wren (1995, p. 325) describes leadership as "in essence, a process - a series of actions and interactions between leaders and followers which lead to the attainment of group goals". Johns and Moser (1989, p. 115) offer an inspiring definition of leadership:

> *The mystique of leadership, be it educational, political, religious, commercial, or whatever, is next to impossible to describe, but wherever it exists, morale flourishes, people pull together towards common goals, spirits soar, order is maintained, not as an end in itself, but as a means to move forward together. Such leadership always has a moral, as well as an intellectual dimension; it requires courage, as well as wisdom; it does not simply know; it cares.*

Linking to the care aspect of this definition, Johns and Moser (1989, p. 115) cite the definition of Burns (1978, p. 19), defining leadership as

> *…leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations — the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations—of both leaders and followers. And the genius of leadership lies in the manner in which leaders see and act on their own and their followers' values and motivations.*

From these definitions, the following questions arise: Are leaders aware of the needs and wants of Generation Y IT professionals? Does existing leadership within organisations understand what Generation Y IT professionals' value and what motivates them? Are there leadership preferences that exist for the various generational cohorts?

2.8.2. Generational leadership preferences

The potential generational differences in work performance, work style preferences, wellbeing and opportunities for development have been the subject of investigation by organisational researchers (Smola & Sutton, 2002). Macky et al. (2008) maintain that there is mixed evidence for whether generational differences do exist. Gentry et al. (2011) examined the endorsement of leadership over the different generational cohorts within an American context. They examined whether there were similarities or differences amongst generations regarding the extent to which the importance of leadership practices was aligned with manager skill levels and found that generations agreed on the same leadership practices that were considered important. The leadership practices included leading employees, balancing personal life and work, participative management, resourcefulness, change management, compassion and sensitivity, self-awareness, confronting problem employees, doing whatever it takes, putting people at ease, building and mending relationships, straightforwardness and composure, showing that differences matter, career management and decisiveness.

According to Bennett (2009) and Karsten, Keulen, Kroeze, and Peters (2009), leadership styles have a significant influence on the behaviour of their followers. These leadership styles comprise the skills that are needed to recognise, attract, retain, develop and manage the required talent to produce the optimal value for organisations in this new knowledge-service world (Maccoby, 2007).

As previously mentioned, in the modern world organisations need to be flexible, nimbler and more adept than ever before to thrive. Managers and leaders must be involved in the day-to-day activities of their organisation. At the same time, they need to effectively provide vision that will lead, inspire, and motivate people (Bennett, 2009). Friedman (2005) postulates that this vision will be needed to help others embrace change, create new products, lower costs, and enable organisations to be more competitive in the global economy.

A question that needs to be asked is what type of leadership brings out the best in Generation Y employees. In answering this question, Hill and Stephens (2003) and Rodriquez, Green, and Ree (as cited in Dulin, 2008) note that in order to get the maximum out of Generation Y, leaders must identify and profile the values, needs, and beliefs of Generation Y employees. The question could be asked: what type of leadership is the preference of South African Generation Y employees, particularly in the IT industry?

In Table 2.4 the leadership preferences of the various generational cohorts are depicted.

Table 2.4
Leadership style preferences of four generations

Traditionalists (70-80s)	**Boomers (50-60s)**	**Gen X (30-40s)**	**Gen Y (20s)**
At ease with leadership systems that are based on demand and control. Prefer leadership to offer certainty and provide structure. Favour leadership decisions that are based on precedent. Leadership decisions should be made with both logic and discipline. Perception that good leadership minimises risks.	Leaders expected to describe the vision. Establishing a clear sense of direction is important. Emphasis is placed on leaders focusing on the big picture and allowing those following to work out the details. Leaders are expected to be democratic and authentic. Perception that good leadership maximises opportunity.	Leadership should be highly dependent on the situation. Expectation of leadership to minimise organisational political activity. Preference for leadership to be informal and approachable. Leaders are expected to encourage entrepreneurship and provide loose guidelines and not rules. Perception that good leadership is balanced and fair.	Leadership is expected to create space for as much autonomy as possible. Leaders' focus should be to set stretch targets and broad milestones. Leaders are expected to operate in flat reporting structures. Not too much hierarchy. Preference given to leaders who provide scope for individual freedom and high levels of autonomy. Perception is that good leadership is creative and inclusive.
Leaders defined by integrity	Leaders defined by being humane	Leaders defined by being credible	Leaders defined by being competent

Note. Adapted from"Generational leadership", by Warner, J. & Sandberg, A., 2010, retrieved from www.readytomanage.com

Interestingly, leadership is defined by the various generational cohorts in terms of very distinctive characteristics: the traditionalists define leadership as integrity, Baby Boomers define leadership as being humane, Generation X define leadership as being credible, and Generation Y define leadership as being competent.

According to Codrington and De Villiers (as cited in Veldsman & Johnson, 2016), it may be that new approaches and even new structures are required for the new generation. They highlight that often when leaders think of generational issues, there is a tendency to think only of issues pertaining to attracting, retaining and engaging younger members of the team. The key challenge is that young people are not merely younger versions of themselves. Millennials, and more so the digital natives also known as Generation Z, have distinctly different values compared to the conventional values

that underpin the existing workplace. They view good leadership as the ability to take a group of diverse individuals (be it generationally or otherwise) and get them to mobilise in the same strategic direction.

Codrington and De Villiers (as cited in Veldsman & Johnson, 2016) postulate that whether the team succeeds or not is more important than egos, titles, past experiences and positions in the social network. This at times is misconceived or interpreted as insubordination. Further, they believe "that many leaders in organisations lack this ability to reframe and rethink their role and function from leading every task to identifying the right person to lead, regardless of age or any other legacy criteria" (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016, p. 517). The Generation Y mind-set believes that it is the leadership's responsibility to make sure that the team is successful at everything and that the leader is not responsible for running everything. This approach, however, is not supported by organisational structures or existing leaders and Codrington and De Villiers (as cited in Veldsman & Johnson, 2016) believe that there are key intergenerational competencies that could point to success in effectively leading in a multigenerational context. The key intergenerational competencies are highlighted and briefly discussed below.

2.8.2.1. Good leaders are good leaders in any generation

Every generation demands honesty and transparency. Every generation expects their leaders to be competent and to know what they are doing on both a technical and people skills level. In leading a multigenerational team, care and growth are important (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.2. Initiate conversations about generations

Good intergenerational leaders allow for generational judgements and preconceptions to be shared in the open and assist in such matters becoming personalised but more generalised. These assumptions, judgements and preconceptions can then be dealt with more easily (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.3. Customising recognition and feedback

The needs of people have not changed from generation to generation, but the fulfilment of these needs is accomplished in different ways. Leaders need to be deliberate about creating different approaches for the various generations under their leadership (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.4. Do not allow technology to be a prohibition

Older generations need to learn to use technology better. Older team members could ask younger colleagues to train and help older colleagues to get up to speed. To build the team, it is vital for leaders to leverage technology for communication and making use of productivity tools (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.5. Mentoring and reverse mentoring

In today's workplace the ages of colleagues span a broad range. Mentoring therefore no longer goes from old to young. Leaders should find ways to get younger team members to mentor and train the older team members too (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.6. Offering options and embracing diversity

Offering as many options and choices possible to best suit the needs and preferences of a diverse team is required to successfully lead a mix of generations (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.7. Being inquisitive

Leadership in the modern world is not so much about having good answers as it is about asking good questions. Projecting personal preferences onto others, especially across generations, can happen unconsciously. A way to avoid this is to ask others what they are thinking and what their preferences are (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.8. Develop a collaborative approach

Younger managers leading older colleagues could benefit from more often involving older colleagues in decision-making (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.9. Personalise and customise

Leaders of the future have the capacity to adapt and adjust their styles to match the people that they are leading (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.10. Engagement style

Baby Boomers have a preference for being team players, whilst Generation Xs are best when they are treated as free agents. Generation Y employees, on the other hand, want to be supported as entrepreneurs/intrapreneurs (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

2.8.2.11. Leveraging the strengths of each generation

Each generation has its strengths and weaknesses. It is therefore important for leaders not to dwell on the weaknesses, but rather on the strengths of each generation and to harness the best contributions that each generation can make (Veldsman & Johnson, 2016).

A study conducted by Dulin (2008) on the leadership preferences of Generation Y supports the findings of Warner and Sandberg (2010) as presented previously. A summary table is presented to illustrate the leadership preferences of Generation Y according to Dulin (2008) in Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5
Generation Y leadership preferences

Leadership Preference	Qualities contributing to description
Competence	(a) Knowledge, (b) intelligent, (c) sound decision-maker, (d) goal-orientated, (e) future-orientated, (f) professional, (g) problem-solver, (h) risk-taker, (i) committed through job completion.
Interpersonal Relations	(a) Provides constructive feedback, (b) effective listener, (c) treats others with respect, (d) manages conflict effectively, (e) fosters fun, (f) friendly, (g) has a good sense of humour, (h) approachable, (i) has a positive attitude, (j) provides praise and (k) encourages others.
Management of others	(a) Cultivating diversity, (b) considering employee needs, (c) seeking employee input, (d) providing reward, (e) being family-centred, (f) setting realistic expectations, (g) providing mentoring, (h) uniting people, (i) providing professional development and (k) promoting creativity.
Self-Management	(a) Sets a positive example, (b) is ethical, (c) maintains emotional control, (d) is trustworthy, (e) accepts personal accountability.
Communication	(a) Persuading others, (b) speaking clearly, (c) speaking with passion, (d) speaking with confidence, (e) possessing communicative versatility.

Note. Adapted from "Leadership preferences of a generation Y cohort: A mixed-methods investigation", by Dulin, L., 2008, *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *2*(1), 43-59.

The findings in Table 2.5 confirm that the Generation Y cohort prefers leaders who are mentors. In their early careers Generation Y seek guidance to navigate their way through the typical bureaucracies. They also seek opportunities for growth and want mentors that would guide them, accelerating their climb up the career ladder (Dulin, 2008).

The behaviours confirmed in the above study resonate with the work done by Kouzes and Posner (2002), who argued that there are five fundamental practices of an exemplary leader, namely (a) challenge the process, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) enable others to act, (d) model the way, and (e) encourage from the heart.

Considering the above discussion on the type of leadership Generation Ys prefer, a few leadership styles will be explored to see which may be more relevant in terms of the Generation Y descriptions. The definition and characteristics of five leadership styles will be explored, namely charismatic leadership, authentic leadership, transactional leadership, servant leadership and transformational leadership.

2.8.2.12. Charismatic leadership

Charismatic leadership, according to Harper (2012), is a process that leads to value transformation. Huang, Cheng and Chou (2005) state that charismatic leadership emphasises changing the needs, values, self-concepts, and goals of the leader's team members. They further postulate that the leader demonstrates exemplary behaviour and values that are needed to achieve the organisation's vision.

The following characteristics are ascribed to charismatic leadership:

- Inspirational to team members
- Exhibits a keen sense of self-confidence and assertiveness
- Passionate communication toward the achievement of organisational goals
- Value-based influence that encourages team members to strive harder for the achievement of organisational goals and objectives

2.8.2.13. Authentic leadership

Authentic leaders, according to Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans and May (2004, p. 4), are defined as those leaders who

> *are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character.*

Luthans and Avolio (2003) define the related construct of authentic leadership in organisations as "a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development".

The following characteristics are associated with authentic leadership:

- Deeply aware of how they think and behave within the context in which they operate;
- Perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values or moral perspectives, knowledge and strengths (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009);
- Positively influenced by the self-awareness and self-regulated behaviours of themselves and their followers;
- Stimulate personal growth and self-development (Illies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005).

According to Luthans, Norman, Avolio and Avey (2008), authentic leaders might influence psychological capital in the following four manners:

- Encouraging employees to develop more self-efficacy. This is achieved through emphasising growth of employees and demonstrating exemplary behaviour.
- Orientation towards follower development, which encourages hope – followers perceive pathways to personal growth and career advancement. The leader's drive for self-regulation promotes follower involvement, which gives followers a sense of inclusion.

- Authentic leaders foster employee optimism through their enablement of identifying with the leader's positive emotions.
- Employee resilience is developed because of the leaders' behaviour, which encourages a sense of ownership during times of uncertainty.

2.8.2.14. Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is based on transactional contingent reward leadership that clarifies expectations and offers recognition when goals are achieved. The clarification of goals and objectives and providing of recognition once goals are achieved should result in individuals and groups achieving expected levels of performance (Bass, 1985).

According to Nguni, Sleegers and Denessen (2006), transactional leadership is based on an exchange relationship where leaders motivate followers by appealing to their self-interest, whereby follower compliance is rewarded.

The characteristics of transactional leadership are as follows:

- Involves contingent rewards and management by exception (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1990);
- Relationship between leaders and subordinates in terms of exchanges of economic, political and psychological values;
- Relationship is a temporary negotiation process instead of an enduring and purposeful one;
- The leader rewards subordinates who meet agreed-upon performance standards (Ravichandran & Gilmore, 2007);
- Focused on clarifying roles and guiding subordinates to achieve pre-determined goals based on rewards;
- Uses compensation methods to enhance corporate performance, reprimanding those who show low performance;
- Offers subordinates little (if any) participation in decision-making (Patiar & Mia, 2009).

2.8.2.15. Servant leadership

Patterson defines servant leadership as follows:

Servant leaders are those who serve with a focus on the followers, whereby the followers are the primary concern and the organisational concerns are peripheral. "The servant leader constructs are

virtues, which are defined as the good moral quality in a person, or the general quality of goodness, or moral excellence" (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005, p. 604).

The characteristics ascribed to servant leadership are as follows:

- Listening
- Empathy
- Healing
- Awareness
- Persuasion
- Conceptualisation
- Foresight
- Stewardship
- Commitment to the growth of people
- Building a community
- Leader is placed in a non-focal position within a group
- Servant leaders are motivated by a desire to serve rather than to lead
- Servant leaders sincerely believe that they are no better than the organisation's members they lead.

2.8.2.16. Transformational leadership (TL)

According to Dai, Dai, Chen and Wu (2013, p. 762), transformational leadership (TL)occurs when "leaders begin inspiring and motivating followers to perform beyond expected levels by activating higher order needs, fostering a climate of trust, and inducing them to transcend their self-interest for the organization's sake".

The characteristics of transformational leadership include the following (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Dai et al., 2013; Rust & Lemon, 2000):

- Mutually-motivational relationship between leader and follower;
- Idealising influencing attributes/behaviours;
- Inspiring employee motivation;
- Encouraging intellectual and individual stimulation;
- Can inspire subordinates to contribute to organisation in terms of higher ideals and concepts of morality.

In response subordinates would:

- Show trust;

- Admiration;
- Loyalty;
- Show respect to their managers;
- Feel that their work and performance are important to the company.

2.8.2.17. Conclusions regarding preferred leadership styles

Generation Ys' need for feedback, motivation and achieving milestones, as indicated in Table 2.5, complement the description of transformational leadership as leaders who provide constructive feedback to their followers, convince followers to exhibit extra effort, and encourage followers to think creatively about complex problems (Bass, 1985). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) claim that, in response to this type of leadership, followers tend to behave in ways that facilitate high levels of task performance. Furthermore, transformational leaders make their organisations' missions a priority and persuade followers to forgo personal interests for the sake of the collective. When followers see their own success as aligned with that of their organisation and identify with the organisation's values and goals, they respond by becoming more willing to cooperate in order to make a positive contribution to the work context.

A comparison of the leadership styles discussed above reveals that each leadership style has an element or two that could be relevant for Generation Y – some more so than others. There are also overlaps in some of the styles, for example the inspirational/motivational trait that is found in charismatic, authentic, transactional, and transformational leadership, and arguably to a certain extent in servant leadership as well. From an industry and discipline perspective, a study conducted on leadership styles of IT managers by Bennett (2009) indicated that IT professionals expect management to inspire, provide vision, encourage extra effort, and be effective within the organisation.

Denton and Vloeberghs (2003) discuss the challenges in the post-apartheid era in South Africa, and claim that effective leadership is required to take South African organisations forward if they are to compete on the global stage. They further discuss the need for transformational leadership within the South African context, and, referring to the work of Tichy and Devanna (1996), they describe transformational leadership characteristics as the ability to identify themselves as change agents, courageous individuals who believe in people, who are value-driven, life-long learners, who have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty, who are visionaries, set direction, mobilise individualised commitment, engender organisational capability and demonstrate personal character (Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003). Given the South African context and the seeming preference of Generation Y's for the transformational leadership style, this style was further examined in the current study.

Empirical evidence suggests that leadership styles have a significant influence on the behaviour of followers (Bennett, 2009; Karsten et al., 2009). Organisations today face many challenges in the spheres of talent management and leadership development. Organisations often wrestle with having to offer a working environment that is appealing to young employees, whilst retaining the valuable skills and knowledge of the older generations (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008). To achieve this, D'Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) suggest the implementation of generation-specific HR strategies, as opposed to the implementation of a generic strategy across all generations.

A number of studies over the years have been conducted examining leadership and intention to quit (Waldman, Carter, & Hom, 2015; Hughes, Avey, & Nixon, 2010; Munyaka, Boshoff, Pietersen, & Snelgar, 2017) and there is a growing interest as of late where scholars are investigating the relationship between leadership and job embeddedness (Masood & Zia-ur-Rehman, 2017, Collins, Burrus, & Meyer, 2014; Ferreira, 2017) which is deemed as an evolving concept.

The following proposition can therefore be proposed:

Proposition 4:

Perceived leadership qualities are positively correlated with job embeddedness.

One of the first steps toward equipping leaders for the new world of work and better understanding Generation Y is to equip them "with the knowledge required to make informed decisions and implement strategies for creating environments that people want to become a part of and stay in" (Legault, 2002, p. 4). Relying on the selection mechanisms for leadership talent is no longer adequate for organisations as they are operating in a time where complexity, mobility and speed of change are increasing and it is recommended that additional efforts be invested in developing leadership skills (Plettinx, cited in D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008). Additional efforts are particularly important when considering leading the Generation Y workforce.

Based on the discussion of leadership, it can be argued that leadership plays a vital role in organisational culture and climate. Some researchers suggest that transformational leadership can aid in creating a supportive climate of ethical behaviour (Banerji & Krishnan, 2000; Krishnan, 2001; Green & Odom, 2003).

The next question to deal with is what type of organisational culture speaks to Generation Y IT professionals in South Africa, and to what extent does it have an impact on intention to quit. In the following section various definitions of organisational culture are presented, as well as a view on organisational climate.

2.9. ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The following section will look at the origin and the definitions of organisational culture, the various dimensions of culture, types of culture, organisational climate and supportive organisational climate.

According to Sadri and Lees (2001), there are numerous ways to define corporate culture, because it is highly influenced by factors such as the specific industry in which the organisation operates, its geographic location, the series of events that have transpired during its history, the personalities of its employees, and their patterns of interaction.

The study of organisational culture emerged in the late 1970s (e.g. Barney, 1986; Pettigrew, 1979; Peters, 1978, Schein, 2004; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). Pettigrew (1979) suggested that how people think, reason and make decisions explained the cognitive systems that organisational culture consists of. Pettigrew (1990) also identified varying levels of culture and argued that culture at the deepest level contains a complex set of values, assumptions and beliefs that define the manner the organisation conducts its business. Schein (as cited in Zacher & Gielnik, 2012, p. 3) defined organisational culture as

> *a pattern of assumptions and beliefs that are developed and held by members of a group in order to construct and interpret reality, and to adapt to internal and external challenges. The group members pass on these assumptions to new members as the appropriate way to think and feel.*

Pettigrew (1979) connects culture with elements such as “coherence and consistency” in an organisation. Deal and Kennedy (1982) refer to culture as a system of informal guidelines serving as a form of social agreement that helps employees understand how life in the organisation, inclusive of rewards and discipline, operates. The evidence of organisational culture will be found in the rituals and symbolism, and the beliefs and ideologies displayed by management (Pettigrew, 1979).

The impact of culture can be observed in several aspects of organisational functioning, for example problem-solving styles (Schwartz & Davis, 1981), as well as the structural preferences of organisations, control systems, reward systems and HR practices (Pettigrew, 1979). The dimensions of organisational culture and the types of culture will be discussed below. Thereafter a generational perspective on the preferred work characteristics of the various generational cohorts will follow, focusing on their business focus, what work means to them, their core values at work, communications and rewards. To a large degree these work characteristics could have influenced the organisational culture over the years, as indicated by definitions of the organisational culture presented above.

2.9.1. Dimensions of organisational culture

Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) offer the following dimensions based on several empirical studies. The first dimension is autonomy, which is related to tasks and the latitude employees have to make decisions at the job level. The second is external orientation, which recognises that each business unit operates in an external environment. According to Hofstede (2003), the open systems theory and many publications on culture highlight that a group's external orientation is certainly part of its internal functioning. A further dimension within organisational culture is interdepartmental coordination, since horizontal differentiation may produce barriers to productive intergroup communication. The fourth dimension is the HR content, as many research articles point to this being part of organisational culture (Gordon, 1990; Gordon & Di Thomaso, 1992; Marcoulides & Heck, 1993). The final dimension is improvement orientation, where the degree of improvement orientation amongst employees is reflective of an organisation's ambition level and, at a minimum; a positive inclination towards organisational improvement is required (Rousseau, 1990).

2.9.2. Four types of organisational culture

Quinn and McGarth (1999) found, in the work they conducted on the competing value approach (CPA), that there are four types of culture, namely consensual, developmental, hierarchical and rational culture. Consensual culture is centred on its people and concern for them. As researchers such as Jae and Tae (2009) explain, in this type of culture, teamwork, employee engagement and employee loyalty are valued. The overall experience within this culture is that leaders are considered as supporters and it is a pleasant environment where people can share their challenges with each other. The second type of culture is rational culture, which places emphasis on results and effectiveness. People within this environment tend to be highly competitive with each other to achieve the organisational goals. Leaders value efficiency and effectiveness and thus they are strong willed and demanding of high achievement from their employees. The overall focus of the organisation is to win and become an industry leader by increasing their market share (Jae & Tae, 2009). The third type of culture is known as the developmental culture. This type of culture is flexible and works in a highly innovative environment. The leader(s), including the employees, are risk-takers and emphasis is placed on innovation, creativity and autonomy. Lastly, the hierarchical culture is characterised by structure, discipline and a formal workplace. Within this culture people follow procedures and policies to execute their duties, whilst leaders are good coordinators and are focused on efficiency. The emphasis within this culture is placed on formal rules and regulations.

With this understanding of what informs an organisation's culture, generational workplace characteristics could present some interesting insights in terms of what the various generations expect from the organisational culture, based on their business focus, what work is for them, their core values, how they show up at work, their preferred communication style and the types of reward they appreciate and prefer. The table below (Table 2.6), adapted from work by Marx (2012), presents

the workplace characteristics of each generational cohort.

Table 2.6
Workplace characteristics of generations

Focus	Traditionalists	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Generation Y
Business Focus	Quality	Extensive Hours	Productivity	Contribution
Work is	An obligation	An exciting adventure	A contract	A means to an end – fulfilment
Core Values	Authority respected Compliance to rules Fun after work Discipline Family focus Law & order Loyalty Committed to organisation Patriotism: value experience over education Trust in government	Equality Challenge authority Optimism Personal gratification Team orientation Individual development	Balance Diversity Fun Educated Interdependent Informal Technologically savvy Not impressed by status Adaptable to change and accepting of change	Confidence Flexibility Diversity Extreme Fun High Morale Self-confident Optimism Enjoy personal attention Socially aware and want to make a difference
At work	Family and work are kept separate Role and expectations are clear Formal communication	High work ethic Ambitious Support teamwork and participation	Work-life balance recognition Want connection with others Prefer informal communication Technology is part of work	Personal and work are equal Enjoy working in groups Creative and innovative Value the greater good Technology is part of work
Communications	Formal	In person	Direct and immediate	E-mail, voicemail, social media
Reward	Job well done	Title recognition	Freedom	Meaningful work

Note. Adapted from “Perceptions of corporate social responsibility of different generations within a financial institutions”, by J. J. Marx, 2012, unpublished master’s thesis, University of Johannesburg, South Africa.

In a study conducted by Choong, Leong, Leong, Loh, and Teo (2013), examining turnover intentions among Generation Y professionals in the fast-food industry, they found a significant relationship between organisational culture and turnover intention. Their findings indicate that organisational culture has a negative relationship with employee turnover intention, meaning that when the organisational culture is high (positive) employees’ turnover intention in turn is low. Their finding was supported by other authors who found that where a positive culture exists, such as a consensual culture, one might see an increase in job satisfaction and therefore lower turnover (Apker, Ford, & Fox, 2003; Neuhauser, 2002). For example, when the organisational culture makes provision for more opportunities for decision-making to be more participatory, continuous learning and building

supportive relationships with subordinates can lead to increased job satisfaction.

Proposition 5:

Organisational culture is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Organisational culture can take a considerable number of years to be fully embedded in an organisation, while organisational climate could be considered as a low hanging fruit in the interest of organisations that wish to be agile in their attempt to retain their Generation Y employees.

Culture is widely understood to consist of fundamental values and belief systems that provide meaning, making it a more implicit concept (Wallace, Hunt, & Richards, 1999). Organisational climate, on the other hand, is described as referring to the more empirically accessible elements, for example behavioural and attitudinal characteristics (Wallace et al., 1999). Supporting this notion, James, Choi, Ko, McNeil, Minton, Wright, and Kim (2008) identified a conceptual difference between organisational culture and organisational climate. Organisational culture is described as a property of the organisation, a reflection of the shared implicit judgements and values of the organisation, whereas organisational climate represents a property of the individual members within the organisation. In light of this and with the appreciation that it may not be viable to change the entire culture of a multigenerational organisation immediately, exploring organisational climate to accommodate Generation Y employees might be a more suitable approach at a practical level. The following section will review the definitions and dimensions of organisational climate. This will be followed by a discussion focused on Generation Ys' response to organisational climate, and, more specifically, supportive organisational climate.

2.10. ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE (OC)

According to Ashkanasy, Wilderom, and Petersen (2011), organisational climate includes the perceptions of observable organisational activities based on conscious processes of individual members. Organisational climate has received significant attention by researchers over the years; however, limited consensus exists on the exact components or elements of the construct (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990; Patterson et al., 2005). Glick (1985) and Koys (2001) refer to the consensus that has been reached amongst authors regarding organisational climate as a phenomenon that is complex and multidimensional. This complexity comes from the employees' perceptions of their experiences over time within an organisation.

Definitions offered for organisational climate include Schneider and Snyder's (1975, p. 474) definition, which defined it as "psychologically meaningful molar (environment) descriptions that people can agree characterize a system's practices and procedures". Rousseau (1989) defined the construct as the perceptions attributed to the work environment. For the purposes of this study, the definition of Reichers and Schneider (1990, p. 22), who define organisational climate as the "shared

perceptions of the way things are done around here", is accepted. Keeping the leadership preferences and the preferred workplace characteristics of Generation Ys in perspective, it may be worthwhile to explore the concept of supportive organisational climate further.

Mercer and Bilson (1985) found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and between supportive organisational climate and employee outcome. Likewise, Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, and Schmitt (2001) reported that supportive organisational climate was related to desired organisational outcomes, such as customer satisfaction. Ferris, Arthur, Berkson, Kaplan, Harrell-Cook, and Frink (1998) found some theoretical models that claimed that the values supported and reinforced within an organisation influence the types of HR systems embedded within that organisation and then these systems, in turn, have an impact on the organisation's climate. The climate based on this has been shown to positively impact employee attitudes and behaviour, as well as individual and organisational performance.

2.10.1. Six dimensions of organisational climate (OC)

Jones and James (1979) identified six dimensions of organisational climate:

(1) Leadership facilitation and support;
(2) Workgroup collaboration; friendliness and warmth;
(3) Conflict and ambiguity;
(4) Professional and organisational unity;
(5) Job challenge; importance and variety; and
(6) Mutual trust.

Ryder and Southey (1990) supported the above dimensions and found them useful for measuring organisational climate.

According to Dulin (2008), organisations lack the knowledge to develop an inclusive corporate climate due to the rapid pace of change and the increased number of Generation Ys entering the workplace (Kupperschmidt, 2001). These changes include the advancement of globalisation, liberalisation and technological expansion (Shirley, 2011).

2.10.2. Supportive organisational climate (SOC)

Climate can be defined as employee perceptions regarding the way they are treated and or managed in their organisation (Brunet & Savoie, 1999; Jones & James, 1979; James & James, 1989). As explained in Boudrias, Brunet, Morin, Savoie, Plunier, and Cacciatore (2010), the climate may be viewed as a set of cognitive appraisals and interpretations made by employees in relation to a specific target in their organisational context, for example safety, innovation and human relations and participation.

For the purposes of this research, we will work with the definition by Luthans et al. (2008, p.255), defining a supportive climate as “the overall amount of perceived support employees receives from their immediate peers, other departments and their supervisor that they view as helping them to successfully perform their work duties”.

Schyns, Van Veldhoven, and Wood (2009) maintain that a supportive climate is where high levels of supportive leadership are exercised and where followers are encouraged and their development and empowerment are supported. Leaders have the power to offer employees job resources that may also lead to the development of a supportive organisational climate and the perception of the availability of job resources may increase the perception of a supportive organisational climate (Roux, 2014). Salanova, Agut, and Peiró (2005) maintain that when employees hold the perception that organisational resources such as training, autonomy and technology are accessible and aid in the removal of barriers at work, they feel more engaged at work.

An organisational climate supports participation when employees perceive that their organisation considers them as important assets, recognises their contribution, values job autonomy and provides opportunities for development (Brunet & Savoie, 1999). This concept of support seems to be critical for effective implementation of high involvement systems, according to Boudrias et al. (2010). Neal, West, and Patterson (2005) state that a positive organisation drives motivation and increases the likelihood of employees allocating discretionary effort to their work.

As discussed earlier, studies on job embeddedness are sparse, especially in the case of the Generation Y cohort. Fun in the workplace and job embeddedness was explored with Generation Y cohort, but to the best of the researcher’s knowledge no studies have been conducted exploring the relationship between supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness.

Proposition 6:

Supportive organisational climate is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

The findings of Marx (2012) regarding the work characteristics and especially the importance assigned by Generation Ys to their work contribution and values seem to concur with the findings of Wilton (2008) and Macleod (2008) presented in Table 2.7 below, illustrating the factors that Generation Ys consider when making their career choices. The aspects of personal life and work, in particular, are seen as equally important, and being socially aware, Generation Ys want to make a difference, as well as being self-confident. According to Smith (2010), the following variables in Table 2.7 had a higher ranking in terms of influencing the career choices of Generation Y.

The aspects presented in Table 2.7 cover not only physical, social and psychological aspects of the career choices of Generation Ys, but also cover the organisational qualities. When one examines the above themes, they seem to link to the subscales of the job resources measuring instrument.

Opportunities for growth are one of the subscales and “chance to develop new skills”, “had personal development plans” and “initiate their own development plans” are all good examples of the subscale. Another subscale of job resources is social support and an example of this is “willing to mix working and personal lives”. Pay, on the other hand, would be an example of the subscale of advancement in the job resources instrument. Given the factors listed above, it was thought worthwhile to explore the aspects of job resources.

Table 2.7
Factors considered in Generation Y career choices

Factors considered	Findings
Looking to build transferable skills	97%
Chance to develop new skills	48%
Challenge of the job	32%
Pay	21%
Expect a range of jobs throughout their careers	67%
Would work for an organisation with strong values	56%
Willing to mix working and personal lives	59%
Would make personal sacrifices to succeed in careers	50%
Had personal development plans	62%
Initiate their learning/development themselves	68%
Work for an organisation they believe in	90%
Able to be myself at work	79%
Thrive on multiple tasks at a time	67%

Note. Adapted from“Generation Y talent: What do they want and what attracts them to employers. A qualitative analysis of motivators in career decisions for future professionals”, by Smith, G., 2010, unpublished Masters Thesis, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.

2.11. JOB RESOURCES (JR)

The job resources concept is derived from the conservation of resources (COR) theory which, according to Hobfoll (1989), refers to people seeking to obtain, retain and protect resources. Further, it is believed that if resources are threatened or no gain is realised after substantial resource investment has been made, stress ensues. According to Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009), resources play an important motivational role in this theory. Job resources are defined by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001a) as the physical, social, psychological and/or organisational qualities of the job that (a) are functional in the accomplishment of goals, (b) decrease job demands and the related physiological and psychological costs, and (c) encourage personal growth and development. The authors further maintain that job resources stimulate personal growth and development.

Job resources may be linked to various levels, including organisational, personal, social relations and tasks. Demerouti et al. (2001a) offer examples of the various levels these job resources may be linked to:

- at the organisational level, inter alia, satisfaction with pay, career opportunities and job security;
- at the interpersonal and social level, amongst others, supervisor and co-worker support, and team dynamics;
- task level examples offered are performance feedback, skill variety, task significance, task identity and autonomy.

Job resources may have both intrinsic motivational potential through the facilitation of learning or personal development and extrinsic motivational learning potential through the provision of help or information for the achievement of a goal (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

2.11.1. Theories and models of job resources (JR)

Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, Jansen, and Schaufeli (2001b) developed the job demand-resource (JD-R) model. The JD-R model is a heuristic model that examines how employee well-being may be produced by two specific sets of working conditions. Job demands, the first set of working conditions, are characterised by job elements that potentially evoke stress in the event these elements exceed the employees' adaptive capability. The other set of working conditions relates to job resources that the job offers to individual employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001b). Job demands are the physical, social, or organisational aspects of the work environment that require sustained physical or psychological (i.e. cognitive or emotional) effort on the part of the employee (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

According to Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), previous cross-sectional studies (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006; Xanthoupoulou et al., 2007) have demonstrated that various job resources such as autonomy, social support, supervisory coaching, performance feedback, and opportunities for professional development are related positively to work engagement.

Conservation of resources (COR) theory suggests that employees seek to obtain, retain and protect resources and, when resources are threatened, or when employees fail to obtain resources after significant investment, stress ensues (Hobfoll, 1989; Xanthopolou et al., 2009). Social support, job enhancement opportunities, degree of participation in decision-making, being psychologically well, having an optimistic orientation, autonomy and established behaviour outcome contingencies are considered some of the examples of resources (Hobfoll, 1989; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). According to Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, and Jackson (2003), personal resources are positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to an individual's sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully.

Hobfoll (2001) states that human motivation is primarily aimed at the maintenance and accrual of resources. Resources are therefore valued in their own right, or because they serve as a means to

obtaining or protecting other valued resources. Job resources therefore may be found at the organisational level at large (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support, career opportunities, job security), the social and interpersonal connections (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support, team climate), the structure of work (e.g. role clarity and/or participation on decision making), and at the level of the task (e.g. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, performance feedback) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

2.11.2. Types of job resources (JR)

According to Bakker (2009), job resources can play either an intrinsic or extrinsic motivational role. Increasing employees' growth, learning and development is an example of job resources playing an intrinsic motivational role, while job resources facilitating the achievement of work goals would be an example of an extrinsic motivational role. Social support or job autonomy may also play an extrinsic motivational role in better achieving work goals (Bakker, 2009).

A team-related resource such as ''social support'' may satisfy the basic human need within the employee of wanting to relate to others, whereas a task-related resource, such as ''task autonomy'', may satisfy needs for autonomy and competence (Deci & Ryan,1985; Ryan & Frederick, 1997; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008).

In light of the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Halbesleben, 2006; Hobfoll, 1989), job resources, such as social support, or support provided at the departmental level, play a pivotal role in reinforcing positive images of oneself and in cultivating positive work outcomes, such as work engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001b).

A literature review conducted by De Lange, De Witte, and Notelaers (2008) indicated that the most salient job resources that were included in the studies reviewed varied from task-related resources (such as job control or autonomy) to social or team-related resources (such as social support), and to organisational-level resources (such as social climate or information). The question is, how do the resources affect Generation Y individuals?

In a study conducted by Henry (2006) he emphasises that Generation Y individuals are motivated by opportunities for self-improvement and participation in training, learning and development activities. He further postulates that Generation Y holds very high expectations of their employers in terms of benefits, flexibility and compensation in exchange for working hard to achieve their goals and seizing opportunities for growth as effectively as possible. According to Houkes, Janssen, De Jonge, and Nijhui (2001), the inclination of employees to leave an organisation will decrease if organisations make provision for valued job resources that foster learning, growth and development.

Proposition 7:

Job resources are positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Considering our understanding of job resources and what opportunities for learning and growth, training and development, and feeling supported in the achievement of work-related goals mean to Generation Y professionals, is it possible that the absence of these resources could serve as antecedents to intention to quit? Is intention to quit different from voluntary turnover? If it is, how is it different? The following section will present a literature review of voluntary.

2.12. REVIEW OF RECENT INTENTION TO QUIT (ITQ) MODELS CONDUCTED WITH GENERATION Y IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Robyn and Du Preez (2013) investigated Generation Ys' intention to quit amongst academics in higher education institutions in South Africa. An ex facto quantitative design was followed, employing abridged versions of the following measuring instruments: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Arnold and Feldman Intention to Quit Scale, Job Descriptive Scale and Chew's reward scale.

Their literature review led to a theoretical model that included organisational fit, training and development, organisational culture, communication and remuneration, team-work relationship, perceived organisational support, employee engagement, transformational leadership, and remuneration and reward recognition, with other variables such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, job stress, and intention to quit, as indicated in Figure 2.6 below.

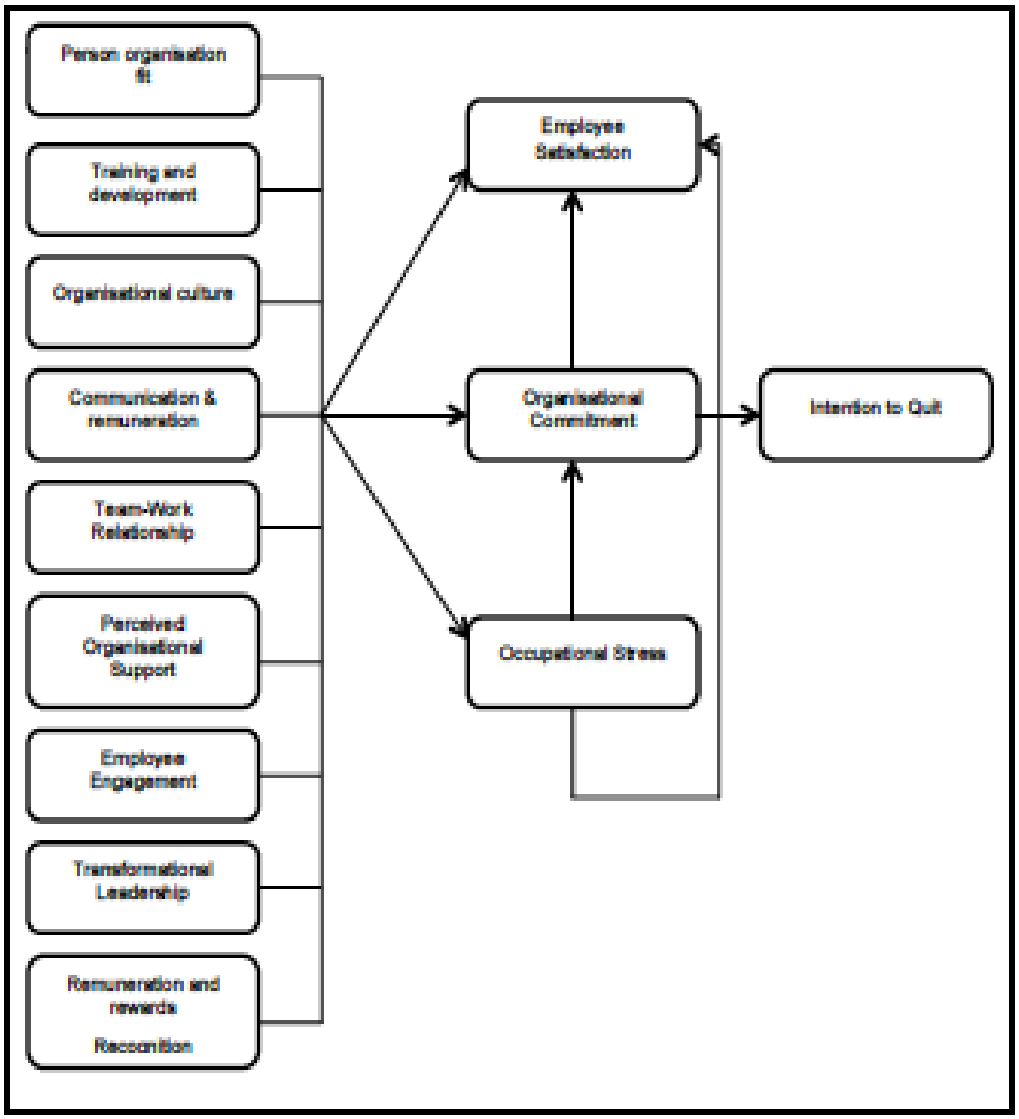


Figure 2.6: Theoretical model from "Intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics in higher education

Adapted from “Intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics in higher education”, by Robyn, A. & Du Preez, A., 2013, *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 39*(1), 1-14.

The scope of the study finally focused on the reduced model presented in Figure 2.7.

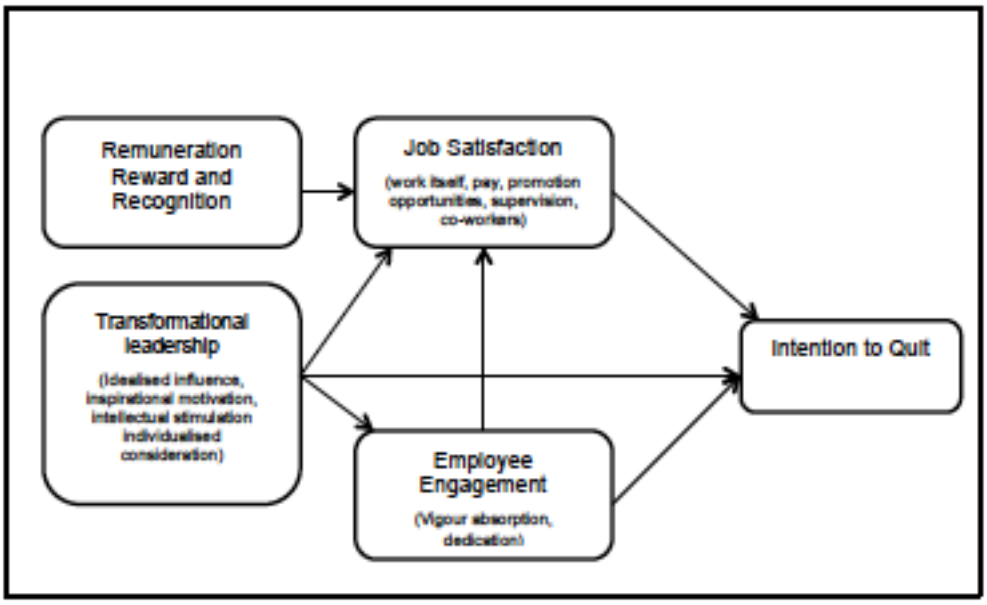


Figure 2.7: Antecedents of intention to quit

Adapted from "Intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics in higher education", by Robyn, A. & Du Preez, A., 2013, *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 39*(1), 1-14.

The main findings of this research indicated that employee engagement, job satisfaction, remuneration, reward, recognition and transformational leadership were significantly correlated with intention to quit. Partial least square path modelling showed that two variables, namely job satisfaction and employee engagement, had significant negative impacts on intention to quit. Transformational leadership was negatively related to intention to quit and had a positive correlation with job satisfaction and employee engagement. The findings of the study contribute to the knowledge about intention to quit amongst Generation Y employees and confirm the complexity and inter-relatedness of the variables in the nomological network of intention to quit. The acknowledged limitations of the study included the research design and the partial model, as it restricts the generalisability of the study. The researchers recommended the inclusion of the psychological capital in future research.

A hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry investigating the intention to quit amongst Generation Y engineers in South Africa was conducted by Marais (2013). Figure 2.8 highlights the various variables that were explored in this particular study.

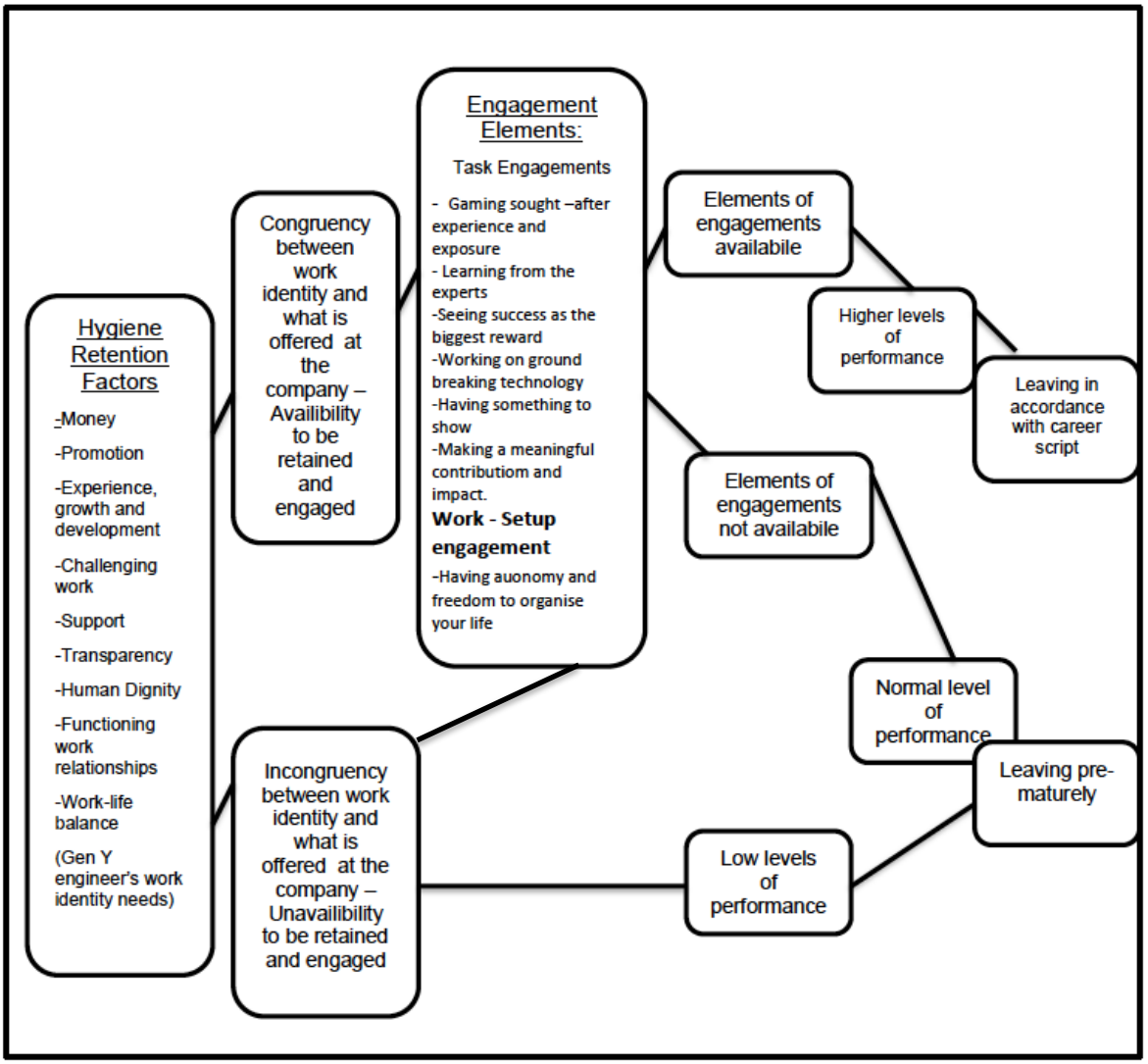


Figure 2.8: A proposed model for hygiene retention factors and engagement elements for Generation Y engineers in South Africa

Adapted from "Retention and engagement of Generation Y engineers: A hermeneutic phenomenological inquiry", by Marais, M., 2013, unpublished master's thesis, Cape Town, SA: UNISA, p.84.

The findings of this research indicate that for the Generation Y engineers, engagement was associated with using the latest technology and doing meaningful work. Work set-up was critical for retention and should their expectations in terms of hygiene factors not be met, the Generation Y engineer is likely to leave. The hygiene factors that were likely to lead to intention to quit, according to Marais' findings, are money, promotion, experience, growth and development, challenging work, support, transparency, human dignity, work relationships and work–life balance.

The following were identified as elements of the task and work-setup (Marais, 2013, p.120):

- Gaining sought-after experience and exposure (also global);
- Learning from the experts;
- Seeing success as the biggest reward;

- Getting instant gratification;
- Working on ground-breaking technology;
- Having something to show;
- Making a meaningful contribution and an impact;
- Having autonomy and freedom to organise your life.

The reported limitations of this study were that it focused on Generation Y only and therefore the findings were not comparable with other generational cohorts. Not all race groups were represented in the findings and the recommendations for future research included researching the hygiene factors qualitatively and wider than the Generation Y population in South Africa (Marais, 2013).

2.13. DEVELOPMENT OF A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

As seen in the above discussion, many variables were found to predict and influence intention to quit (Besich, 2005; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013; Wheeler et al., 2010). A selection of factors was made from these for practical and theoretical reasons, and to limit the scope of the present study to a meaningful and manageable level. The purpose of the present study was to investigate and explore a targeted selection of factors that could act as antecedents to intention to quit and that could possibly be used to predict such action from particularly Generation Y professionals' experiences in South Africa. It must be noted, however, that by targeting certain selected variables, this study does not in any way ignore the myriad of equally relevant constructs that have been explored empirically in relation to intention to quit. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), demarcation is an essential part of the research process and various considerations were used in demarcating this study, focusing, for example, only on on-the-job embeddedness. The first step was to consider, through a review of literature, the known antecedents of intention to quit. The second step was to examine the available literature relevant to the objectives of this study to find clear indications of the required future research directions.

A comparison of the leadership styles discussed in section 2.8 reveals that each leadership style has an element or two that could be relevant for Generation Y – some more so than others. The study on leadership styles of IT managers by Bennett (2009) indicated that IT professionals expect management to inspire, provide vision, encourage extra effort, and be effective within the organisation.

Empirical evidence suggests that leadership styles have a significant influence on the behaviour of followers (Bennett, 2009; Karsten et al., 2009). Organisations often wrestle with having to offer a working environment that is appealing to young employees, whilst retaining the valuable skills and knowledge of the older generations (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008). To achieve this, D'Amato and

Herzfeldt (2008) suggest the implementation of generation-specific HR strategies, as opposed to the implementation of a generic strategy across all generations.

One of the first steps toward equipping leaders for the new world of work and better understanding Generation Y is to equip them "with the knowledge required to make informed decisions and implement strategies for creating environments that people want to become a part of and stay in" (Legault, 2002, p. 4). A number of studies over the years have been conducted examining leadership and intention to quit (Waldman, Carter, & Hom, 2015; Hughes, Avey, & Nixon, 2010; Munyaka, Boshoff, Pietersen, & Snelgar, 2017) and there is a growing interest in investigating the relationship between leadership and job embeddedness (Masood & Zia-ur-Rehman, 2017, Collins, Burrus, & Meyer, 2014; Ferreira, 2017), which is deemed as an evolving and promising concept that focusses on why people stay in organisations.

Based on the discussion of leadership in section 2.8, it can be argued that leadership plays a vital role in organisational culture and climate. Some researchers suggest that transformational leadership, for example, can aid in creating a supportive climate of ethical behaviour (Banerji & Krishnan, 2000; Krishnan, 2001; Green & Odom, 2003). Generation Ys' need for feedback, motivation and achieving milestones, as indicated in Table 2.5, complement the description of transformational leadership as leaders who provide constructive feedback to their followers, convince followers to exhibit extra effort, and encourage followers to think creatively about complex problems (Bass, 1985). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) claim that, in response to this type of leadership, followers tend to behave in ways that facilitate high levels of task performance. Furthermore, transformational leaders make their organisations' missions a priority and persuade followers to forgo personal interests for the sake of the collective. When followers see their own success as aligned with that of their organisation and identify with the organisation's values and goals, they respond by becoming more willing to cooperate in order to make a positive contribution to the work context.

Denton and Vloeberghs (2003) describe transformational leadership characteristics as the ability to identify themselves as change agents, courageous individuals who believe in people, who are value-driven, life-long learners, who have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty, who are visionaries, set direction, mobilise individualised commitment, engender organisational capability and demonstrate personal character (Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003). Given the South African context and the seeming preference of Generation Y's for the transformational leadership style, this style will be further examined in the current study.

As previously discussed, the job resources concept is derived from the conservation of resources (COR) theory which, according to Hobfoll (1989), refers to people seeking to obtain, retain and protect resources. In addition, it is believed that if resources are threatened or after substantial resource investment has been made and no gain is realised, stress ensues. Resources play an important motivational role in this theory, according to Xanthopoulou et al. (2009). Job resources are the physical, social, psychological and/or organisational aspects of the job that have an impact on the functional achievement of work goals. It could reduce job demands as well as the physiological and psychological costs. Demerouti et al. (2001a) maintain that job resources stimulate personal growth and development.

Exploring the reasons why people stay and what attracts them to organisations, the following was found in a more recent study within Generation Y populations within the South African context. It also influences the theoretical basis for exploring the relationships between job resources, job embeddedness and intention to quit. Bearing in mind what is known with respect to Generation Y, organisations may provide resources in the form of skills development opportunities, career progression opportunities and autonomy in jobs, which may serve as the web which is referred to in the job embeddedness theory. Could these links be enough to retain Generation Y professionals? According to Smith (2010), training and development and career progression, amongst others, appear to be key drivers for Generation Y employees in South Africa.

Smith's (2010) research reflected an alignment with past research findings in that building skills was deemed a major factor in enabling career and work diversification, which refers to the ability to do more than one job. This also proved to be a major motivating factor for Generation Y professionals as they seek to equip themselves across a range of jobs and work across functions.

The opportunities to enhance skills serve as an integral part of the decision-making process when deciding on an employer. There appears to be a noticeable difference between the findings of Smith (2010) and past research. This could be due to several reasons. Reasons offered refer to the skills shortage and unemployment rate that are significantly higher than during past research conducted in the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA). It is inferred that South African Generation Y professionals may feel the need to equip themselves with marketable and needed skills. Generation Y professionals seem to prefer to learn through experience, challenging their abilities (Smith, 2010).

An observable difference between past research and the finding of Smith (2010) that Generation Y is more attracted to challenging jobs was noted. From an economic perspective, the UK and USA are regarded as mature economies, whereas South Africa and Africa represent growth markets. For South Africa to realise its potential, its young professionals must be ready to embrace the opportunities and challenges this presents.

The significant differences between Smith's (2010) findings and past research findings could be ascribed to the difference in the economic conditions of where each of the studies was conducted. Past research was conducted in the UK and the USA (first-world countries) and Smith (2010) did his study within South Africa (third-world nation). Thus, higher living standards are still being pursued in the South African population. This specific study was conducted primarily with students, which may explain money being the biggest motivator.

Past research included Generation Y professionals who were economically active, while the study conducted by Smith (2010) within the South African context included students (future professionals). It could be interpreted that the higher percentage of work experience is due to the lack of experience and naturally seeking a wide range of exposure to gain experience.

Most Generation Y professionals seem to have a strong preference to work for organisations with strong value systems across the board. Transparency and consistency are associated with strong values and serve as motivating factors when career decisions are made (Smith, 2010).

Most Generation Y professionals indicated a willingness to allow for their personal lives and professional lives to converge, provided that their work environments were warm, friendly and encouraged social interaction. Generation Y professionals would be attracted to organisations with a culture that enables them to connect with people they can easily relate to, given the long hours they are prepared to work. Flexible working hours and policies that encourage it serve as motivating factors in considering an employer (Smith, 2010).

Free time, permanent stay in a specific place for a longer period and postponing family planning are some examples of sacrifices Generation Y professionals are willing to make in order to succeed in their careers (Smith, 2010). One should, however, remember that Smith (2010)'s sample consisted exclusively of students who indicated a willingness to make these sacrifices to kick-start their careers.

Studies indicated that Generation Y professionals have a long-term focus and this is confirmed by the personal development plans they had for themselves. A probable reason for this phenomenon could be the fact that participants were in the final stages of their academic years and had to make long-term plans for their future.

A considerable number of Generation Y professionals are willing to fund their own academic development. Although they would like their employers to fund it, they are not relying on employers for this. The fact that Generation Y professionals are willing to fund their own studies reinforces the notion of training and development as huge motivating factors (Smith, 2010).

Studies conducted in the UK and the USA indicated that Generation Y professionals prefer to work for organisations they believe in. The study in South Africa indicated that this was less important to them. This could be because the sample consisted of students with their needs more geared to settling student debt or ability to achieve emerging class aspirations.

Most Generation Y professionals expect to be authentic, congruent and true to themselves within the workplace. The values Generation Y expect their employers to embrace include congruency, honesty and transparency, not expecting them to put on a facade.

On the one hand, multi-tasking is indicated as an ability of Generation Y professionals; while complacency and stagnation are avoided in the workplace. Generation Ys seek challenges, tasks that are highly stimulating and engaging in the workplace (Smith, 2010).

Based on the above discussion, an attempt is made to consolidate the points to aid in developing a proposed conceptual model in the table below. Consideration is also given to what would be relevant, bearing in mind the concept of job embeddedness based on the understanding that was offered through the literature review.

Table 2.8 presents a consolidation of factors regarded as relevant to what is important for Generation Ys and what we have learnt from the job embeddedness theory. The table attempts to categorise the factors in terms of the various subconstructs of job embeddedness (i.e. organisational links, organisational, sacrifice and organisational fit). The factors are gleaned from the literature, categorised into a concept and then linked to a subconstruct of job embeddedness.

For example, an opportunity to develop new skills, which is one of the findings from a study conducted by Smith (2010), is categorised as training and development and in terms of its relevance to job embeddedness it could either be linked to organisational links or fit. Another finding by Smith (2010) that influences Generation Ys' career decisions and opportunities is the need for individuality, categorised as authenticity and uniqueness embraced, which could be relevant to the subconstruct of organisational fit of job embeddedness.

Table 2.8
Further consideration of variables to serve as inputs for this research

Career decision influences and opportunities	**Concept Consolidation:**	**ob embeddedness link:**
Anticipation and expectation to build transferable skills	Training and Development	Organisational Links/ Organisational Fit
An opportunity to develop new skills	Training and Development	Organisational Fit
Challenge of the job	Challenge of the job	Organisational Fit/Organisational sacrifice

Pay	Job resources	Organisational sacrifice
Expectation of occupying a variety of jobs throughout their careers	Career progression	Organisational links/organisational sacrifice
The perception of working for an organisation with strong values	Congruency of values	Organisational Fit
Openness and inclination to mix work and personal lives.	Build relationships beyond colleagues. Organisational culture conducive for work life integration.	Organisational Links/ Organisational Fit/Organisational sacrifice

Table 2.8 (continued)

Career decision influences and opportunities	Concept Consolidation:	ob embeddedness link:
Willingness to make personal sacrifices to succeed in career.	Personal resources	Organisational Sacrifice
Had personal development.	Training and development	Organisational Fit/ Organisational Links/ Sacrifice
Initiators of personal learning and development.	Training and development	Organisational Fit
Perception of working for organisation they believe in.	Believe in organisation's vision	Organisational Links
Need to be an individual and being themselves at work	Authenticity and uniqueness embraced	Organisational Fit
Thrive on multiple tasks at a time	Diversified roles and tasks	Organisational Links

Note. Adapted from"Generation Y talent: What do they want and what attracts them to employers. A qualitative analysis of motivators in career decisions for future professionals", by Smith, G., 2010, unpublished Masters Thesis, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.

The dimension of fit also concerns whether employees perceives themselves as fitting into the organisation and environment. The key factors informing this perception would include career plans, features of the job, work knowledge and skills, location of the organisation, political and socio-cultural environment, climate conditions, recreational activities and the congruency of their personal values with that of the organisation (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). According to a study by Cable and Judge (1996) the congruency of the values of an employee and that of the organisation increases job embeddedness, whereas incongruency or a low match increases turnover rate. Mitchell et al. (2001) supports this by postulating that when employees experience congruency between their values and that of the organisational culture and society or when they form good relationships informally or formally with other employees and people in society, they will have a lower level of turnover intention. Leaving the organisation or society will result in the loss of the gains from both the organisation and society. In light of above and recognising the importance of values the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 8:

Endorsement of Generation Y values moderates the relationships between leadership qualities, job resources, organisation culture, organisation climate and job embeddedness.

Endorsement of Generation Y values hones into what the Generation Y cohort's preferences are based on their values. Values are important, as previously discussed, as they determine whether an employee fits into the organisation or not, based on the congruency of the values. Values dictate employee behaviour and would also inform the perception of leadership qualities, job resources, organisation culture, organisation climate and job embeddedness. Apart from this the researcher is

of the opinion that belonging to an age cohort does not automatically determine the values that the person endorses.

Having completed the literature review in terms of the objectives of the study and on the reported antecedents to the intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals in South Africa and taking the future directions for research into consideration, it was decided that the first phase of the present study would determine through a qualitative approach whether the antecedents identified theoretically would be confirmed as those that Generation Y IT professionals consider salient in their thinking about choosing to stay or considering to quit. . The preliminary conceptual model reflecting these variables is presented in Figure 2.9.

Based on the preceding discussion the preliminary conceptual model could be summarised by hypothesising that, for the purposes of this study, leadership style and behaviour (perceived leadership) could be considered an important antecedent of the intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals. Further exploration during the qualitative phase will be required to narrow down the construct to a more specific operationalisation.

Various job resources also combine to affect the intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals. The qualitative phase will be utilised to obtain more information about the specific resources to be included in the eventual measure of job resources.

The overview of applicable research findings pertaining to organisational culture and climate has shown that the Generation Y professionals have very specific expectations regarding the qualities of the organisational culture and climate that they are exposed to. It was therefore hypothesised that the nature of the organisational culture and climate experienced would be significant antecedents of their intention to quit.

The reasoning behind Generation Y values endorsement as moderator is that one cannot assume that age cohorts are sufficiently similar internationally, or between cultural and socio-economic groupings, hence the degree to which the person endorses Generation Y values was regarded as a moderator variable that represents the unique preferences of Generation Y individuals. In similar vein the degree of job embeddedness, as manifested in its sub-dimensions, was hypothesised to be a powerful positive motivation to stay that holds great promise in terms of the management of intention to quit. The researcher developed the expectation that intention to stay will overshadow all the already included antecedents and determine their impact on the intention to quit.

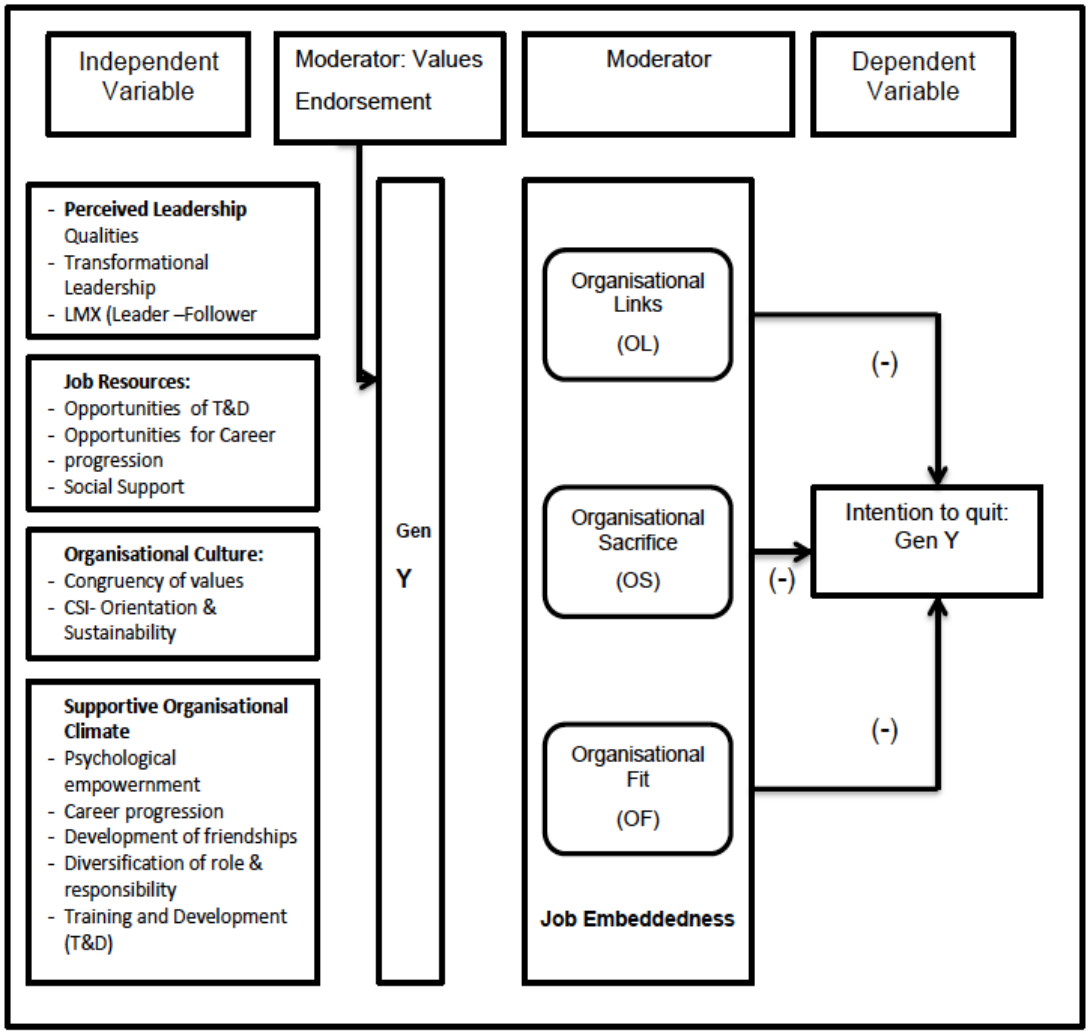


Figure 2.9: Preliminary conceptual model: antecedents to intention to quit

2.14. PROPOSITIONS

Based on the above preliminary conceptual model, the following initial propositions were proposed throughout the literature review:

Proposition 1:

The job embeddedness dimension of organisational links will be negatively correlated with turnover intention.

Proposition 2:

The job embeddedness dimension of organisational sacrifice will be negatively correlated with turnover intention.

Proposition 3:

The job embeddedness dimension of organisational fit will be negatively correlated with turnover intention.

Proposition 4:

Perceived leadership qualities are positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 5:

Organisational culture is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 6:

Supportive organisational climate is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 7:

Job resources are positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 8:

Endorsement of Generation Y values moderates the relationships between leadership qualities, job resources, organisation culture, organisation climate and job embeddedness.

2.15. SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the generational cohorts, namely the Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation Xs and Generation Ys. A closer look was offered in terms of leadership style preferences, as well as an overview of organisational culture, supportive organisational climate, and job resources as antecedents. Theoretical discussions of voluntary turnover, intention to quit and the new concept of job embeddedness were presented. Furthermore, studies conducted with Generation Ys within the South African context were reviewed to inform the direction of this study and the proposed theoretical model. The research methodology employed in the current study is presented in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS FROM THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 provides insight into the methodology that was used in Phase 1 (qualitative strand) of this study to investigate the antecedents of intention to quit amongst Generation Y software development employees in the IT industry in South Africa. The primary research approach used in this study was a mixed methods approach with a qualitative phase preceding the quantitative study of the intention to quit among Generation Y employees in three software development organisations in South Africa.

The results of the qualitative content analysis (Phase 1) are reported in this chapter and the outputs of this phase are summarised in preparation for the methodology followed in Phase 2. Based on the results some minor alterations were made to the self-compiled questionnaire that were implemented in Phase 2. Phase 2 incorporated the development of the measuring instrument and the initial evaluation of it in preparation for Phase 3. While the methodology and rationale of the qualitative phase will be covered in this chapter, the findings pertaining to Phases 2 and 3 will be discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Since part of this study investigated the possible cause and effect relationships by observing an existing condition or state of affairs and searching back in time for plausible causal factors, the ex post facto research method was applied. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000), the researcher questions himself or herself about which factors appear to be associated with certain occurrences, or conditions, or aspects of behaviour. Ex post facto research is a method of teasing out possible antecedents or events that have occurred and cannot therefore be engineered nor manipulated by the researcher. Kerlinger (1970) defined ex post facto research more formally as that in which the independent variable or variables have already occurred and in which the researcher starts with the observation of a dependent variable or variables. The researcher subsequently studies the independent variable or variables in retrospect for their possible relationship to, and effects on, the dependent variable or variables. The retrospective examination by the researcher thus looks at the effects of a naturally occurring event on a subsequent outcome with a view to establishing a causal link between them.

Some advantage in using the ex post facto research method is that it yields valuable information regarding the nature of the phenomena relating to what goes with what and under which conditions. It therefore is considered a useful and an appropriate tool to use when simple cause-and-effect relationships are explored. One other advantage of the ex post facto research method is that it offers

a sense of direction and gives a fruitful source of hypotheses or, in the case of this study, propositions that are subsequently tested (Cohen et al., 2000).

The steps that were taken in implementing the ex post facto research method in the present study are described below. The research question that was to be investigated was identified by the researcher, followed by the objectives of the research project. The review of literature that followed enabled the researcher to determine the kind of issues, problems, obstacles and findings reported by previous studies conducted on this theme. The planning of the investigation included the identification of the population and the sample, the selection and construction of the techniques for data collection, and lastly the categories for the classification of data. This formed part of Phase 1 of the study and the output of this process served as the input for Phase 2, which together formed part of the overarching mixed methods design.

The mixed methods approach, consisting of a qualitative phase followed by a quantitative phase, was regarded as suitable and appropriate for investigating Generation Ys' intention to quit within South Africa. The two phases are discussed in terms of the (i) research design, (ii) sample design and procedure, (iii) data collection technique, and (iv) data analysis techniques employed. The methodological approach of the qualitative phase is described in detail in the rest of this chapter.

3.2. PHILOSOPHICAL DEPARTURE POINTS

The departure points of the current project are discussed below including the approach and philosophical paradigm associated with the mixed method research design which discussed below.

It is critical to clarify social views and scientific believes prior to embarking on a research journey as an individual's philosophical paradigm directly influences what research is carried out and how it is executed. Facts and arguments are based on an individual's perspective of reality (Flick, 2009). According to Rubin and Babbie (2009) research paradigms are the frameworks that guide observation and understanding within specific disciplines. They further postulate that the purpose of research is to transform what is accepted as truth (i.e. doxology) into how we get to know the truth (i.e. epistemology). The paradigm provides therefore a set of principles that guide the process of transforming doxa into episteme. These guiding principles inform the researcher on how the data should be collected, analysed and interpreted.

3.2.1. Ontology

Ontology is described as the study of being, according to Scotland (2012), and reflects the researcher's ideological stance in life. As previously mentioned, determining the researcher's stance prior to conducting the research is vital as it informs how he or she will study the knowledge obtained through the research process. Scotland (2012) presents three ontologies which are presented as (1) the scientific paradigm, or positivism, which says "reality exists independent from the researcher"

(Scotland, 2012, p.10); (2) the interpretive paradigm, or relativism, which says that reality is constructed subjectively by individuals as they interact in the world; and then finally (3) the critical paradigm, or historical realism, which says reality has already been shaped through culture, economics and politics. Grix (2002) refers to two paradigms, namely positivism and constructivism, while Simpson (2005) adds that constructivism refers to specifically understanding the richness of truth through relativism and not realism.

As a departure point the researcher is clear that her interest is embedded in the field of psychology, in the understanding of humanity and how this manifest in the world of work. Her career path as a human resource practitioner and the diverse industries and companies within which she was employed provided insights into organisational behaviour. In reflecting on the ontology of the researcher it is revealed that the researcher holds a constructivism perspective. The researcher's perspective is that humanity is evolving at a physical individual level, as well as a species. According to Simpson (2005) our earthly bodies and our spiritual souls are connected and through the growth and understanding that happens to us over our lifetime our realities emerge as we continue to interact with, and react, to life events. Different reactions are observed from individuals when exposed to similar contexts and these individuals construct their own realities based on these reactions and interpretations. Our realities according to Simpson (2005) are ever changing and are relative with unpredictable outcomes.

3.2.2. Epistemology

Holding a constructivist perspective, the researcher explores the intricacies of these experiences that are unfolding. Grix (2002, p.177) postulates that "If ontology is about what we may know, then epistemology is about how we come to know what we know".

Our epistemology is dictated by the manner in which we approach the acquisition of knowledge, the manner in which we rationalise our beliefs and how we study the social world. According to Scotland (2012) subjectivism is the epistemology of constructivism or interpretivism where meaning is generated as a result of the interaction between the individual and his/her world. Stuep (2005) postulates that social epistemology sees truth as being socially constructed. The researcher admits to holding a constructivism/interprevistism point of view.

Researchers differ in their paradigms and Babbie (2010) remarked that no research paradigm is inherently more superior to another. Researchers should make a decision which research paradigm is best suited for the nature of research challenge and objectives. With this in mind the researcher adopted a pluralistic approach by drawing on more than one research paradigm to generate a comprehensive understanding, explanation and interpretation of the intention to quit amongst Generation Y software development professionals in South Africa. More specifically the researcher drew on the principles of the interprevtist paradigm in the qualitative phase to glean the value of

multiple perspectives to deepen her understanding of the antecedents to intention to quit, and the principles of the positivist paradigm in the quantitative phase to evaluate the emerging exploratory model. The respective paradigms are briefly discussed in light of the qualitative and quantitative phases.

3.2.3. Research paradigm:

Two primary research paradigms exist, namely positivism and interpretivism. The positivist paradigm is more suitable for quantitative research methodologies, whereas interpretivism is more suitable for qualitative research methodologies (Rubin & Babbie, 2009).

3.2.3.1. Research paradigm of the qualitative phase: Interpretivism

According to Rubin and Babbie (2009) the interpretivist paradigm assumes that a phenomenon can be understood and interpreted in a subjective way in terms of multiple, intangible mental models. The characteristics of the participants and researchers influence the content and form of the mental models. One mental model may not necessarily be more or less accurate than another mental model, however another mental model may be more or less informed or sophisticated (Rubin & Babbie, 2009).

The process of meaning-making through the subjective interpretation of a phenomenon is characteristic of the interpretivism paradigm. The notion of value free research is rejected by researchers who adopt this paradigm. Researchers become part of the phenomena where empathetic understandings are developed. This enables the researcher to produce meaningful explanations of the phenomena (Rubin & Babbie, 2009).

3.2.3.2. Research paradigm of the quantitative phase: Positivism

Positivism, which is also referred to as the scientific approach, is the investigation of a phenomenon where the natural science model of research is applied. The natural science model is based on the understanding that natural laws and mechanisms determine a specific phenomenon. The positivistic paradigm guides researchers to concentrate on formulating fundamental laws that can be utilised to explain observable and measurable behaviours. This enables researchers to make generalisations comparable to those generated by natural scientists (Rubin & Babbie, 2009).

A phenomenon is observed and measured objectively when the positivistic paradigm is employed. This indicates that researchers have no interference with the phenomena as the researchers adopt a distant, non-interactive position and interpretations that are made are neutral and are made in a value free manner. No attention is paid to the personal values of the researchers, which may serve as impediments to their objectivity (Rubin & Babbie, 2009). Researchers adopting this paradigm favour analysing quantifiable data where they are able to formulate hypothesis.

3.3. THE MIXED METHODS RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003, p.165),

> *A mixed methods study involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research.*

The tendency to focus on both qualitative and quantitative data is on the increase in social sciences. Creswell et al. (2003) mention that all methods of data collection have limitations and they postulate that the use of multiple methods can neutralise or cancel out some of the disadvantages of certain methods. A wide consensus amongst researchers has been reached that mixing several types of research method could strengthen a study (Greene & Caracelli, 1997). Greene and Caracelli (1997) also describe social sciences as dealing with complex phenomena and they express the opinion that a variety of methods is needed to best understand the complexities. Given these advantages, the mixed methods approach was considered appropriate for this study.

The following questions were developed to answer the research-initiating question as indicated in Chapter 1.

What is the relationship between intention to quit (dependent variable), job embeddedness (independent variable) and other organisational variables (independent variables) such as perceived leadership qualities, organisational culture, job resources and supportive organisational climate?

Can a conceptual model be built, depicting the combined influence of organisational variables such as job embeddedness, perceived leadership qualities, organisational culture, job resources and supportive organisational climate on intention to quit?

To answer the above questions in a systematic manner, an appropriate research design was essential.

The research design selected and employed for this study was the sequential exploratory design. It consists of a two-phase design in which the researcher embarks on a qualitative journey exploring the topic followed by a quantitative phase. The name of the research design emphasises the exploration element of the research. As depicted below (Figure 3.1), this design is characterised by two phases, an initial phase of qualitative data collection and analysis followed by a phase of quantitative data collection and analysis. The findings of the two phases are integrated during the interpretation phase of the study and will be presented in the chapters to follow.

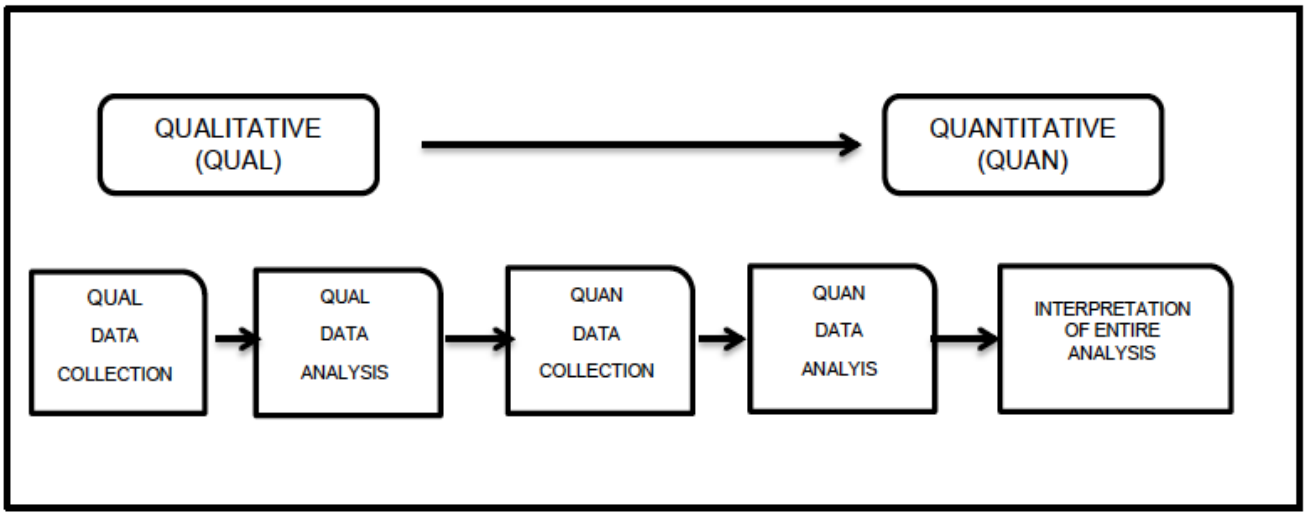


Figure 3.1: The sequential exploratory design

Adapted from"Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches", by Creswell, J. W. 2009, 3rd ed., Los Angeles, CA: Sage, p. 209.

According to Creswell, Fetters, and Ivankova (2004), when this research design is employed the researcher usually develops an instrument or instruments as an intermediate step that builds on the qualitative results that are utilised in the quantitative data collection that follows. In this study, however, no new instrument was developed as the initial qualitative phase served the purpose of construct clarification, and verification and validation of the nomological network of variables identified in the literature overview. It also provides a rationale for the selection of existing instruments to be included in the study, as well as for adapting some of the instruments, if necessary, based on the findings of this phase.

3.3.1. The purpose of the exploratory sequential design

The objective of selecting this particular research design was to obtain accurate empirical evidence that would allow data interpretation that would enable the researcher to establish at the conclusion of the overarching study whether the research propositions presented in Chapter 2 were supported or not. The purpose of the first, qualitative, strand was essentially exploratory in nature to inform the second, quantitative, strand (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). Creswell et al. (2003) offer a number of reasons for the need to utilise an exploratory design, namely (a) if the availability of an instrument or measurement tool is non-existent, (b) if the variables are unknown, or (c) if there is no guiding theory or framework. In the case of the current study the concept of job embeddedness is regarded as still fairly new and the critical question is whether it manifests itself in the same way in the South African population and, more specifically, in a population of Generation Y IT specialists.

Figure 3.2 outlines the basic procedures in the implementation of an exploratory design.

For this study, the qualitative phase had dual relevance. Firstly, it was to ascertain whether the instruments to be used in the quantitative phase covered the relevant constructs that were deemed essential from a theoretical perspective. Secondly, it was to determine whether additional themes surfaced that were not sufficiently covered by the selected measuring instruments.

Figure 3.2 below presents the basic procedures in the implementation of an exploratory design outlining the three phases including the outcomes for each phase. In addition, the related chapter within which each phase would be presented and discussed is also indicated in the figure below with the intent to orientate the reader.

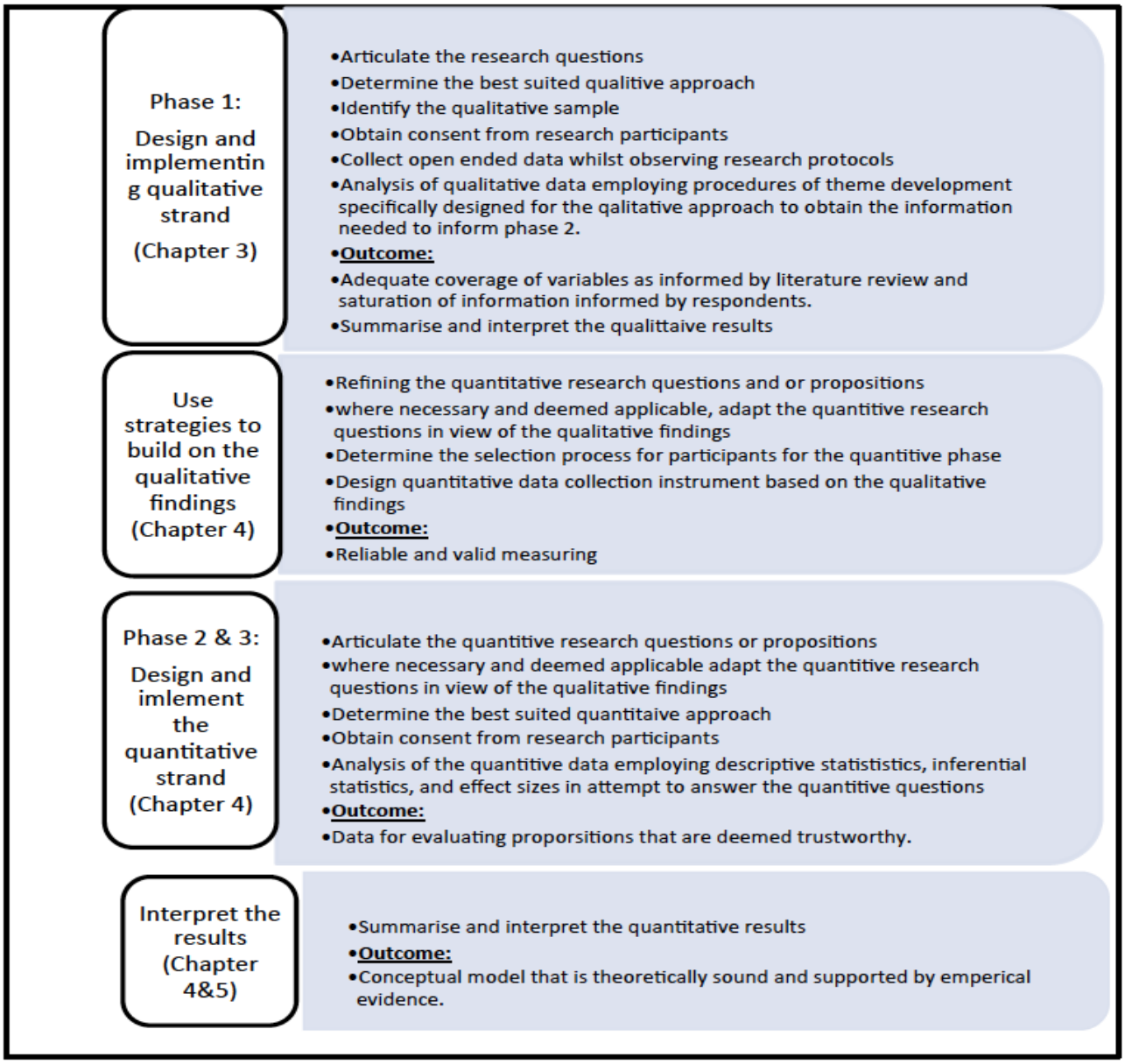


Figure 3.2: The basic procedures in the implementation of an exploratory design

Adapted from “Designing and conducting mixed methods research”, by Creswell, J.M. & Plano Clark, V. L. 2011, 2nd ed., Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

A summary of the sequential research design and necessary information in terms of the research design utilised in this study is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Methodological summary of sequential research design phases

Sequential Research Design Phase	**Sample size**	**Sampling Design**	**Data Collection Technique**	**Data Analytics Technique**	**Outcome**
Qualitative Strand (Phase 1)	34	Purposive/Judgemental Sampling	Focus groups Qualitative interviews	Content analysis	Informed Phase 2
Quantitative Strand (Phase 2)	31	Convenience Sampling/Snowball	Online Questionnaire		Self-compiled the proposed questionnaire
Quantitative Strand (Phase 3)	319	Snowball/Convenience sampling	Online Questionnaire		Answers to research questions

The following section will present an overview of the qualitative strand (Phase 1) of which the primary objective was to ascertain whether the instruments to be used in the quantitative (Phase 2) adequately covered all the variables that were deemed important, consistent with the literature review. In addition, Phase 1 was also intended to determine whether there were other themes that were not covered by the chosen instruments.

3.3.2. The research population

The research population for this study was defined as Generation Y employees in software development within the IT industry in South Africa.

The criteria for inclusion in the study were that (a) the employee was born between 1980–2000 (to be deemed as Generation Y per the South African definition); (b) that the Generation Y employee was working for a software development company in the IT industry; and (c) that the organisation for which the employee was working was based in South Africa.

3.3.3. Procedure and ethical consideration

During Phase 1 ethical clearance was obtained from the ethics committee of the Business School to proceed with the field work. Once ethical clearance was obtained a letter requesting permission to conduct research was sent to the CEOs of Argility, Alacrity and C-quential. Permission was granted from the CEOs to proceed with the research. The group Hr director sent an introductory e-mail to all employees within the Generation Y age category inviting employee's voluntary participation in the research project. The announcement emphasised that participation is voluntary and Generation Y

employees had an opportunity to choose which timeslot they would prefer for attending the focus group sessions. Employees were allowed to attend the focus group sessions which was held at their workplace during working hours. On the day of the focus group sessions, all participants were given a consent form explaining the purpose of the research. The researcher explained all the elements on the consent form, such as confidentiality and anonymity and once understood by all, the consent forms were signed and returned to the researcher. Participants were afforded an opportunity to leave if they were not comfortable to participate after the introductory and consent briefing. Participants were guaranteed that their anonymity would be strictly protected and that any information obtained in relation to the study could not be personally identified with them and would be treated as highly confidential. It was further confirmed that the data would only be used for research purposes. respondents were also informed that if they had any concerns or questions about the research, they could contact the researcher (Candice Booysen) or her promoters (Prof. Johan Malan and Dr. Babita Mathur-helm) and enquiries about their rights as a research subject could be directed to the unit of research development at the Stellenbosch Business School. The above-mentioned ethical considerations were applicable for all the phases of the research project. After consent forms were returned participants were handed a semi-structured interview. The questions were read aloud by the researcher and the participants were asked to write their initial responses on the questionnaire after which a brief discussion was held to allow for additional thoughts to emerge. The discussion was recorded and transcribed. respondents were thanked for their participation and asked if they would be willing to participate in Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the research project. The researcher explained that Phase 2 will be a follow up focus group to evaluate the composite online questionnaire and share their experiences of answering the online questionnaire. The composite questionnaire was to be based on the findings of Phase 1. Phase 3 would entail them asking other Generation Y employees to complete the online questionnaire, which is referred to as the snowball data collection technique. Those who were willing to do so were asked to record their names on a list and would be contacted once the online questionnaire was ready.

This section above has outlined Phase 1, which consisted of semi-structured interviews with focus groups. The sample frame, interview procedure, selection of the sample for the qualitative interviews, and sample characteristics are discussed below. In addition, the purpose of the semi-structured interviews, the development of the semi-structured interview schedule, the transcription of the interview data, content analysis, coding of data, the measures used to ensure quality control, and the limitations of the qualitative strand are discussed.

3.3.4. Sample frame and interview procedure

From the population of the three organisations, namely Argility, Alacrity and C-quential, the researcher selected a sample frame of four groups from organisations based in the Cape Town and Johannesburg regions respectively. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in the form of focus

groups with a target of ten participants in each session. A focus group can be defined as "a group interview centred on a specific topic ('focus') and is facilitated and co-ordinated by a moderator or facilitator who seeks to generate primarily qualitative data by capitalising on the interaction that occurs within the group setting" (Sim & Snell, 1996, p. 189). Another researcher refers to the role of the focus technique as follows:

> *The idea behind the focus group is that group processes can help people to explore and clarify their views in ways that would not be easily accessible in a one on one interview … When group dynamics work well the participants work alongside the researcher, taking the research in new and often unexpected directions* (Kitzinger, 1995, p. 299).

Some high-level advantages of focus groups are presented as follows by Sim (1998, p. 346), based on his findings:

- "an economical benefit of tapping into the views of several respondents as opposed to the one-on-one interview approach.
- the benefit of obtaining information on the "dynamics" of attitudes and opinions of the respondents in the context of the interaction between the participants as opposed to the static views expressed through a questionnaire.
- Participants may encourage each other when offering their views to be more spontaneous as opposed to other methods of data collection.
- An element of "safety" is offered to express views through this method as respondents do not feel pressurised to answer every question.
- Through group cohesiveness and a sense of group membership participants may experience a sense of empowerment and feel supported".

A general rule of thumb when setting up focus groups is that eight to twelve participants are considered a suitable number (Krueger, 1994; Steward & Shamdasani, 1990). Other researchers have made use of smaller groups with four to six participants (for example Strong, Ashton, Chant, & Cramond, 1994). One focus group session took place in Cape Town and three sessions in Johannesburg. A total of 34 employees participated in the focus group interviews facilitated in the four focus groups. According to Babbie and Mouton (2006), it is advisable to have more than one focus group to control for idiosyncratic responses, as the researcher may be able to determine what impact the group dynamics had on the data. Babbie and Mouton (2006) suggest that in the case of focus group interviews an attempt should be made to have three to five groups, but they argue that more focus groups seldom provide new insights. Supporting these views, Sim (1998) believes that conducting more than one focus group increases the reliability of the resulting data as views are

countered or diluted by other groups' views if one group's views were in some way aberrant. For this reason, four focus group interviews were deemed adequate to meet the objectives of the investigation. Creswell (1998) recommends between five and twenty-five interviews for a phenomenological study and twenty to thirty in a grounded theory study, whilst Bernard (2000) observed that most ethnographic studies are based on thirty to sixty interviews. The intention was to have 5 focus groups with roughly 40 participants and the realised number of focus groups were four with a total of 34 participants. On the other hand, fifteen is the smallest acceptable sample size in qualitative research (Mason, 2010). Morse (1994) recommended six participants in the case of phenomenological studies and approximately thirty to fifty participants in the case of ethnographic studies. According to Sim (1998), when no new themes are forthcoming when analysing data, a point of 'saturation' has occurred and conducting more focus groups is probably not necessary.

The concepts of saturation vary and are referred to as "theoretical saturation" or "data saturation" (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). The concept of theoretical saturation is defined by Nascimento et al. (2018, p.229) as

> *"Data collection is considered saturated when no new elements are found and the addition of new information ceases to be necessary, since it does not alter the comprehension of the researched phenomenon."*

In this approach, the researcher deliberately searches for extreme variations of each concept in the theory to exhaustion. For the purposes of this study the more general term of "data saturation" was used as defined by Guest et al. (2006). No new themes emerged from the analysis that was conducted by the researcher after the fourth focus group, and after the 34th interview the researcher felt comfortable and confident that she had reached data saturation point.

Figure 3.3 illustrates the concept of saturation of themes and categories.

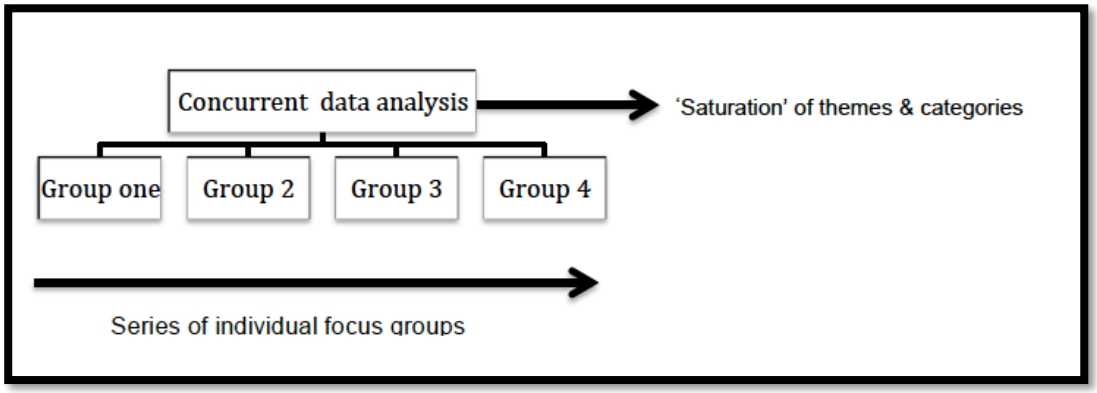


Figure 3.3: Saturation of the themes and categories

Adapted from"Collecting and analysing qualitative data: Issues raised by the focus group", by Sim, J., 1998,*Journal of Advanced Nursing, 28*(2), p. 349.

On 16 May 2015 the researcher obtained permission from the CEOs of the three organisations to conduct the research, with permission to access dates of birth, job titles and e-mails of Generation Y employees (See Appendix A). On 8 June 2015, the Group Human Resources Executive sent an introductory e-mail to all potential participants (Generation Y employees only) in which they were informed of the dates on which the focus groups were scheduled (See Appendix B). Forty-two participants from the three organisations were invited to participate in the semi-structured interview and focus group sessions. The focus group sessions were divided into four sessions from which participants could choose one. As previously mentioned, three sessions were held in Johannesburg and one in Cape Town. The introductory invitation made it clear that participation would be voluntary, and an informed consent form was attached, which outlined the purpose of the study and the assurance of confidentiality. On 9 June research assistants extended Outlook invitations through which the RSVPs would be managed to ensure an appropriate size for each focus group. These invitations were sent to all Generation Y employees within the three organisations requesting their participation in the research and explaining the value that their views and insights could add to the body of knowledge in understanding Generation Y employees in South Africa. The consent form, an overview of the study, and contact details of the researcher, as well as the details of the focus groups were attached to the e-mail. In total forty-two e-mail requests were sent out and 34 participants attended the focus group sessions. When participants arrived at the venue, they were each provided with a copy of the consent form. The researcher read the content of the consent form aloud to the group and answered any questions participants had prior to signing the consent forms. The participants were asked to return the signed consent forms and completed answer sheets to the research assistants. Following the signing of the consent forms, the researcher, with the help of the research assistants, distributed the semi-structured questionnaire and explained the process by informing the participants of what was expected of them throughout the session. The researcher explained that the questionnaire consisted of eight questions and that each question would be read aloud, and each participant had to record their answer on the answer sheet provided (See Appendix C). Further to this, the participants were informed that they would be afforded an opportunity after the written recording of their responses to the question to discuss their answers. The purpose of the discussion was to afford the group members an opportunity to discuss their answers and to observe whether new themes would emerge through the discussions. Participants were also informed upfront that these discussions would be recorded by making use of an audio recorder. Once the question was discussed and no more insights were offered, the researcher proceeded to the next question and the same process was followed for all the questions. At the end of the session each participant was requested to hand in their answer sheets and asked whether they would be willing to participate in the second phase of the research survey. The researcher thanked the respondents for their participation and closed the session. A follow up e-mail with a small token of appreciation was sent out to thank all the respondents who participated in Phase 1 (See Appendix D).

3.3.5. Selecting a sample for the qualitative interviews

A purposive sampling approach was employed to select the Generation Y participants for the interviews. Company records were used to identify those employees born between1980 and 2000, to identify the Generation Y employees of three software development organisations.

The population selected consisted of three companies representing software development in the IT industry in South Africa as indicated in Table 3.2. The population was limited to software developers and excluded the support services within these organisations. According to Neuman (2011), when applying purposive or judgemental sampling, cases are usually selected with a specific purpose in mind. King and Horrocks (2011) postulate that when conducting a qualitative study, the intention of sampling is not necessarily to ensure statistical representativeness.

3.3.6. Sample characteristics

The research was conducted at three medium-sized software development organisations (one in financial services, one in retail and another in the logistics and warehousing industry). The participants had to be permanently employed within the software development industry and born from 1980 to 2000. Generation Y support services employees from all three organisations such as finance, human capital, and marketing and office management were excluded from the sample.

Table 3.2 reports the participants' representation per organisation.

Table 3.2
Breakdown of Generation Y participation per organisation

Software Development Company	Number of Employees in the Organisation	Number of Gen Y Employees Participated in the focus groups
Argility Technologies (Retail)	128	23
Alacrity Technologies (Financial Services)	104	8
C-Quential (Warehousing & Logistics)	19	3

In this study most of the Generation Y software development participants were from the retail sector, represented by Argility Technologies, followed by the financial services represented by Alacrity Technologies, and then warehousing and logistics represented by C-Quential.

The biographical characteristics of the sample respondents who participated in the interviews and focus group are reported next.

Table 3.3 reports the ethnic group by gender distribution.

Table 3.3
Ethnic group by gender distribution

Ethnic Group	Female (% Total)	Male (% Total)
African	7 (19%)	11 (30%)
Coloured	0	4 (11%)
Indian	0	3 (8%)
White	9 (25%)	2 (6%)

From this table it is evident that most of the sample were African male candidates.

Table 3.4 reports the respondents' tenure.

Table 3.4
Frequency distribution: respondents' tenure

Tenure in (Months)	Number of Respondents
0-12	8 (22%)
13-18	7 (19%)
19-24	2 (6%)
25-36	4 (11%)
37-48	3 (8%)
49-56	2 (6%)
57+	9 (25%)
No response	1 (3%)

It is evident that most of the respondents have been employed in their current organisation for more than 57 months (4+ years).

3.3.7. The final sample for focus group interviews

The final sample represented 80 per cent of the sample frame originally contacted, and 13.5 per cent of the population of the three companies in South Africa.

Focus group interviews were conducted in the form of semi-structured interviews. Participants were handed a semi-structured interview schedule with eight open-ended questions. Participants were then afforded an opportunity to discuss their responses after their personal responses to each question were written down on their response sheets. The group discussions were recorded, using an audio tape recorder. The sessions lasted 90 minutes each. The atmosphere of the interview and discussions was relaxed and semi-formal. The reason for the fourth group being the last focus group conducted relates to the issue of data saturation as discussed under the interview procedure.

3.3.8. The purpose of the semi-structured interviews

The purpose of the interviews was to obtain the views and experiences of Generation Y employees on what serves as antecedents to intention to quit and to inform the nature of the questionnaire that was to be selected or developed for the quantitative phase of the study. The qualitative study was therefore an important phase in the pursuit of the objectives of the study.

The qualitative interviewing procedure offered the following qualities:

- The chance to explore social realities from an ontological position, which refers to what constitutes reality for Generation Y employees and how its nature can be understood.
- Acquiring data of an in-depth nature through interviewing, rather than general and broad data obtainable through surveys.
- A chance to explore the depth and complexity of the topic through the recording of discussions.
- Data collection that may not have been obtainable through searching company records.

Semi-structured interviews allow for an exchange of dialogue, and can also provide reliable, comparable qualitative data. This was deemed well suited for the study as it permitted the exploration of the perceptions and opinions of Generation Y employees and enabled probing for more information and clarification.

3.3.9. Development of the interview guide

The interview guide was based on the job embeddedness interview guide by Holmes et al. (2013). The work of Holmes et al. (2013) was selected with the intent to further advance the extant literature pertaining to job embeddedness. As discussed in Chapter 2, although a plethora of studies has been conducted on employee turnover, there has been limited research on job embeddedness (why people stay) according to some scholars (Holmes et al., 2013; Kilburn & Kilburn, 2008; Zhao & Liu, 2010).

Additional questions were added, including constructs emerging from the literature review, with the purpose of clarifying the nomological network of variables associated with job embeddedness if these variables were not spontaneously covered. These additional questions related to job resources, preferred leadership styles and organisational culture, which will be discussed below.

The job embeddedness interview guide consisted of the following six open-ended questions:

- How long have you worked for your current organisation?
- What made you stay with the organisation up to this point?
- What would you like to see changed or improved in the workplace?

- Is there anything that would make you leave?
- Is there anything else you would like to say or are there any other questions?

The additions made to the job embeddedness interview guide were informed by the literature review, which led to identifying the anticipated antecedents in the nomological network of antecedents. The additional questions are as follows:

- Describe the leadership style that you prefer. How would/does this leadership style influence your work in your current job?
- How would you describe the culture of your organisation? What do you like the most about your organisation's culture and what do you like the least about your organisation's culture?
- Which aspects of your job make it easier to perform optimally? Which aspects of your job make it more difficult to perform optimally?

The questions for the finalised interview guide (see Appendix D) were arranged under the following eight themes for the purpose of content analysis:

Topic A: Tenure

The question under Topic A addressed the participant's tenure.

- "How long have you worked for your current organisation?"

Topic B: What serves as the stay factor(s) for Generation Y employees?

The question under Topic B addressed the factors that influenced the employee to stay within the organisation.

- "What made you stay with the organisation up to this point?"

Topic C: What needs to change or be improved in the workplace?

The question under Topic C addressed the factors the employee would like to see improved or changed in the workplace.

- "What would you like to see changed or improved in the workplace?

Topic D: What would cause the Generation Y employee to leave?

The question under Topic D addressed the factors that would cause the Generation Y employee to leave.

- "Is there anything that would make you leave?

Topic E: Preferred leadership styles and how that would influence work

The question under Topic E addressed the Generation Y employee's preferred leadership style and explored how the employee thinks it will influence his or her current job

- "Describe the leadership style that you prefer. How would/does this leadership style influence your work in your current job?

Topic F: Organisational culture and what is it that you like the most and the least of that culture?

The question under Topic F addressed the factors that the employee would like to see improved or changed in the workplace.

- "How would you describe the culture of your organisation? What do you like the most and what do you like the least of your organisation's culture?

Topic G: What makes optimal performance possible and which aspects make optimal performance difficult (job resources)?

The question under Topic G explores the aspects of the job that optimise performance and aspects of the job make performance difficult.

- "What would you like to see changed or improved in the workplace?

Topic H: General views

The question under Topic G invites the employee to express any additional thoughts or ask any questions.

- "Is there anything else you would like to say or do you have any questions?

3.4. TRANSCRIPTION OF SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS AND FOCUS GROUP DATA

The quality of the interview data was dependent on the quality of the recordings and the written responses of participants. The audio equipment used was a Samsung S4 cell phone, which enabled clear recordings of the sessions.

A research assistant who understands the IT industry and is familiar with the IT terminology transcribed the interviews. The assistant attended a training session with the researcher to go through the techniques to be used and the required standards for transcribing. The scribe was requested to record all nuances, including pauses and laughter. The researcher verified the transcripts and additional insights were gained by replaying them. One of the transcripts is attached as Appendix E.

The duration of each focus group differed, as some groups were bigger than others. Focus group 1's audio-recorded data was lost because of a technical error, despite testing the device prior to the session. The written responses were retained and included in the analysis as they were regarded as the primary source of information, while the recording provided for respondents to expand on their views. The device was replaced, and three focus groups were hosted subsequently. Focus group 2 lasted 52 minutes and 25 seconds. Focus group 3 lasted 1 hour, 2 minutes and 7 seconds. The last

focus group lasted 1 hour, 12 minutes and 41 seconds. In total, 39 pages were transcribed as the output of the audio recordings.

3.5. CONTENT ANALYSIS

Clarity on the research process and approaches used for qualitative data analysis is important in achieving the researcher's goals. In this study, for the purposes of Phase 1, the theoretical focus was on content analysis, for which there is a plethora of definitions.

One of the initial content analysis scholars, Robert Weber, defined content analysis, as "a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text. Those inferences are about the sender(s) of the message, the message itself, or the audience of the message" (Weber, 1990, p. 9). Content analysis is defined as "words or phrases within a wide range of texts, including books chapters, essays, interviews and speeches, as well as informal conversations and headlines" (Babbie & Mouton, 2008, p. 491).

Green (2004, p. 82) defines content analysis as "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use". Qualitative content analysis defines itself within this framework as an approach of empirical, methodologically controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytical rules and step-by-step models, without rash quantification (Mayring, 2000, p. 2). Given that this study was hybrid in nature, the definition of content analysis formulated by Sekaran was used (Sekaran, 2003). According to Sekaran (2003), content analysis includes the quantification of qualitative data gained through systematic analysis of applicable data used. This could be used in creating a means for presenting it for statistical analysis. During the analysis of the qualitative data, the notes were transcribed, categorised and placed under appropriate themes. Thereafter, the response categories were then converted into numbers and finally subjected to appropriate analysis. In the current study manual coding was utilised, which is discussed below.

Qualitative content analysis is the preferred choice for novice researchers because it focuses on one level of meaning, namely the content of the data texts. According to Babbie and Mouton (2008), through the examination of specific words and phrases in texts the researcher could make inferences about the philosophical assumptions of the writer, a written piece, the audience for which the piece was written, and the culture and the period in which the text is rooted. Content analysis may be utilised in various applications, for example psychology and cognitive science.

The purpose of using content analysis for Phase 1 of this study was to code the responses to the open-ended questions that were posed to Generation Y respondents using the semi-structured job embeddedness questionnaire.

3.5.1. Analysing the qualitative data

All the data collected or gathered in the qualitative phase was documented carefully and analysed qualitatively. After the focus group sessions all the written responses of the semi-structured interviews were manually captured, and audio recordings transcribed. Data was checked for completeness and errors, ensuring that the text was ready for the next step in the research process, which is called the analysis process. According to Babbie and Mouton (2008), the conclusions drawn through the interpretation of the results of the data analysis should be objective and not based on any subjective or emotional value.

3.5.2. Coding the data

According to Babbie and Mouton (2008), coding data requires the researcher to make decisions around what they are going to code; for example, coding for frequency or coding for existence. Researchers decide whether they are prepared to generalise about words that may have similar meanings, as well as the parameters of what is acceptable or not. Through this process a set of rules automatically emerges for the study. The more certainty gained through this process, the more certainty is gained with respect to which of the data that has been transcribed should be left out. These practices were applied in this phase of the study.

The method of transcribing used in this phase applied five levels of which the process can be described as a spiral. According to Schilling (2006), this process moves in analytic circles from one level to the next and is called the qualitative content analysis spiral:

Level 1 – from tapes via transcripts to raw data
Level 2 – from raw data to condensed protocols
Level 3 – from condensed protocols to a preliminary category system
Level 4 – from a preliminary category to coded protocols
Level 5 – concluding analysis and interpretation

In this study, during level 1 of the qualitative content analysis, the tape recordings were supplemented with the written responses of the participants. The written responses were captured in addition to the transcripts.

Table 3.5 represents a summary of the phases of content analysis.

Table 3.5
Summary of the phases of content analysis

Phase 1: Orientation to the data	**Phase 2: On the way working the data**	**Phase 3: Final composition of the analysed data text.**
Reading or studying data sets to form our overview and to comprehend the context (within the data).	Coding segments of meaning. Categorising related codes into groups. Seeking relationships between categories to form thematic patterns.	Writing the final themes of the set of data. Presenting pattern of related themes.

Note. Adapted from "Finding your way in qualitative research", by Henning, E.H., Van Rensburg, W., & Smith, B., 2010, Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers (p. 138).

3.6. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS (PHASE 1)

Taking into consideration the existing body of knowledge and utilising the inductive nature of content analysis, higher order themes were extrapolated from the data. Themes that ranked lower were identified and the frequencies related to the various themes were captured.

The introductory discussions and utterances of respondents were captured as is and presented in quotation form ("…"). No corrections in terms of spelling, grammar or sentence constructions have been made to the verbatim responses.

The following tables present the themes that emerged from the data gathered and analysed during Phase 1. Thirty-four interviews were captured through four focus group sessions across three software development organisations.

3.6.1. Job embeddedness (JE)s

Job embeddedness relates to the concept of why people stay in organisations and what the factors are that attach them to the organisation (Holmes et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2001b).

Table 3.6 indicates the frequencies of the aspects of job embeddedness reported that made employees stay with their organisation to date.

Table 3.6
Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to staying with current organisation

Question: What made you stay with your organisation up to this point?

Themes	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Training& Learning opportunities	20	"Growth – sending you to further your studies", "Growth with training courses", "Growth and opportunity through on-the-job training and online training"	JR: advancement, growth opportunities JE: organisational sacrifice
Organisational Support /Job resources (Management & team)	18	"Loyalty to the managers that helped me where I am", "The organisation takes good care of me", "I get support from my peers"	JR: organisational support, social support JE: organisational fit
Organisational Culture	17	"Great culture". "The values and the vision of the culture"	JE: organisational fit, Supportive organisational culture: employee commitment
Career growth opportunities & mentorship	9	"Growing into new roles", "Career growth – mentorship"	JE: organisational sacrifice, JR: advancement, growth opportunities
Fear (unknown, perceived instability of market)	9	"Job security – unsure of employment options outside of Argility", "Fear – the grass not greener on the other side"	JE: organisational sacrifice, JR: job insecurity
New Technologies	7	"Learning new technologies", "Working with new technology"	JR: meaningful work, JE: organisational fit
Money, salary, remuneration	5	"Money and the promise that there's going to be more money coming in"	Satisfaction with pay, JE: organisational sacrifice
Challenging work	4	"Projects are not too boring for me to leave", "Also enjoy the challenges that come with the work, it keeps my brain to be able to function"	JR: meaningful work, JE: organisational fit
Flexibility	4	"Flexibility: very important factor, have young kids and commute to work is long, thus the need for flexibility is more prevalent. It also made me more productive" "Flexibility"	JE: organisational fit
Enjoyable work	4	"I like what I'm doing at the organisation" "I enjoy consulting because I get to meet and work with new different people and projects"	JE: organisational fit, JR: meaningful work

Table 3.6 (continued)

Themes	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Recognition and feedback	3	"Encouragement and incentives given to show that you are recognised for good work", "Good working environment and you are recognised for your good work"; "Regular re-evaluation."	JE: organisational fit
Autonomy – freedom	1	"Freedom to explore new technology", "Liberties offered to me"	JE: organisational fit
Quality of work	1	"Quality of work we provide to our customers"	JR: meaningful work
Role satisfaction	1	"Satisfied with roles over the years"	JE: organisational fit
Comfortability	1	"I also got comfortable"	JE: organisational fit
Boredom	1	"I get bored easily"	JR: meaningful work, JE: organisational fit
Contract conditions	1	"It's a 12-month contract"	JR: job security

The categories of the responses reflect the presence of different constructs namely advancement, growth opportunities, organisational support, social support, organisational fit, organisational sacrifice and employee commitment. Advancement, growth opportunities, social support and organisational support could be seen as subconstructs of Job embeddedness, whereas organisational sacrifice and organisational fit can be seen as subconstructs of Job embeddedness. From a content analysis point of view it is clear that there may be an overlap between job resources and job embeddedness.

It is evident that training and learning, organisational support/job resources, and organisational culture are amongst the highest frequencies. Career growth opportunities and mentorship, as well as the fear of the unknown (job security and the perceived instability of the market) are of lesser frequency, but important enough to note. In examining the above frequency table, it is evident that all the themes relate to on-the-job embeddedness, except flexibility, which was of a lower frequency. Although it can be argued that flexibility is an on-the-job item (Mitchell et al., 2001b), other studies have measured both on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness (Burton, Holtom, Sablynski, Mitchell, & Lee, 2010; Dawley & Andrews, 2012, Mitchell et al., 2001b). In one of the studies, the off-the-job embeddedness was positioned as a moderator of the relationship between on-the-job embeddedness and turnover intentions. They also found that on-the-job embeddedness is more strongly related to turnover intentions than off-the-job embeddedness (Dawley & Andrews, 2012). Off-the-job embeddedness includes factors such as family and community, which serve as determinants of whether a person would stay with an organisation or not (Dawley & Andrews, 2012).

The above findings, where most of the themes relate to the work environment, as opposed to that of family and community, support the focus on on-the-job embeddedness in the current study, which is presented as a moderator in the conceptual model.

3.6.1.1. On-the-job embeddedness

The embeddedness scale selected for the quantitative phase of the study therefore only included items relating to on-the-job embeddedness (Lee et al., 2004), and was adapted to exclude the off-the-job embeddedness. The three on-the-job embeddedness dimensions, namely organisational fit; organisational links; and organisational sacrifice, were examined. The items for each of the dimensions based on the work of Lee et al. (2004) were slightly adapted and include the following 22 items:

Organisational fit:

(a) My job utilises my skills and talents well,
(b) I feel like I am a good match for this organisation,
(c) I feel personally valued by my organisation,
(d) I like my work schedule (e.g. flexitime, shift),
(e) I fit in with this organisation's culture,
(f) I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company.

Organisational links:

(a) How long have you been in your present position?
(b) How long have you worked for this organisation?
(c) How long have you worked in the (Information Technology) industry?
(d) How many co-workers do you interact with regularly?
(e) How many co-workers are highly dependent on you?
(f) How many work teams are you on?
(g) How many work committees are you on?

Organisational sacrifice:

(a) I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals,
(b) The perks on this job are outstanding,
(c) I feel that people at work respect me a great deal,
(d) I would incur very few costs if I left this organisation,
(e) I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job,
(f) My promotional opportunities are excellent here,
(g) I am well compensated for my level of performance,
(h) The benefits are good on this job,

(i) I believe the prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent.

3.6.2. Intention to quit

Table 3.7 indicates the frequencies of the factors contributing to intention to quit.

Table 3.7
Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to factors contributing to intention to quit

Question: Is there anything that would make you leave?

Themes	Frequency	Example(s) of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Money/salary/remuneration	24	"If I'm not happy with my salary", "Decrease in salary without buy in", "Financially not growing"	JE: organisational sacrifice, Satisfaction with pay
Lack of growth opportunities	21	"If I feel like I'm no longer growing", "If I feel I am not growing enough in terms of my skills", "No growth opportunities"	JE: organisational sacrifice, JR: advancement, growth opportunities
Change in leadership, culture or structure	7	"Constant changes restructuring in management", "Another change in the working environment",	JE: organisational fit, organisational culture, leadership
Boredom – no challenging work or less responsibility	7	"Not stimulated enough", "Your work not being appreciated". "Boredom", "Having no work to do".	JE: organisational fit
Fairness perceptions	6	"Not being treated with respect by fellow employees", "Unfairness, injustice and prejudice".	Organisational justice
Work–life balance	6	"Lack of flexi-time", "More balanced life", "No flexibility – strict 8am–4pm"	JE: organisational fit
Lack of recognition	4	"No recognition for what you do (all goes to manager)", "Bad management and not getting recognition for work"	JE: organisational fit
Empty promises and false hope, negativity	3	"False hope", "Empty promises"	JE: organisational fit
Other opportunities in the market	2	"opportunity elsewhere", "finding something better outside", "Better opportunities for growth (personal and professional)"	JE: organisational sacrifice

Table 3.7 (continued)

Themes	Frequency	Example(s) of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Business operations	2	"Business failing", "Cost cutting"	
Lack of leadership	2	"Management steering project in the wrong direction", "If I'm managed by someone who is not qualified for the position"	Leadership
Micro-management	2	"Being micro managed"	
Lack of communication and transparency	2	"Let the employee know about the company"	JE: organisational fit, organisational culture
Technology	1	"Technology stagnation"	JE: organisational fit, meaning
Lack of leadership development	1	"Rigid management who don't want to evolve"	Organisational culture
Being overlooked for promotion	1	"Constantly being overlooked for promotion"	JE: organisational sacrifice
Not adding value personally	1	"When I feel I'm putting less value to the company I would leave"	JE: organisational fit

The categorisation of the responses reflect the presence of different constructs, namely organisational sacrifice, satisfaction with pay, advancement, growth opportunities, organisational fit, leadership and organisational culture. As mentioned above advancement and growth opportunities seem to be a subconstruct of job resources and organisational fit and sacrifice subconstructs of job embeddedness. From a content analysis point of view, we again observe an overlap between the job resources and job embeddedness constructs.

Remuneration and lack of growth opportunities are evidently the highest factors that would stimulate Generation Y employees' intention to leave an organisation. Based on the work done by Mitchell et al. (2001b), intention to quit was measured using the following three items (a) "Do you intend to leave the organisation in the next 12 months?", (b) "How strongly do you feel about leaving the organisation in the next 12 months", (c) "How likely is it that you will leave the organisation in the next 12 months?". The work of Hom, Griffeth, and Sellaro (1984) supports and underpins the work of Lee et al. (2004). The researcher is comfortable that satisfaction with remuneration is an item that is covered in the dimension of organisational sacrifice in the job embeddedness construct. The theme "lack of growth opportunities" is covered under both the job resources and job embeddedness constructs.

3.6.3. Leadership style

The following section presents the findings relating to leadership styles.

Table 3.8
Leadership styles: Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to preferred leadership style

Question: Describe the leadership style that you prefer? How would/does this leadership style influence your work in your current job?

Themes	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Leader who motivates, provides feedback and assists with growth	13	"A person that is very skilled and talented that I could learn from and that will help me grow"; "Leader who constantly gives feedback"; "Build confidence and positively motivate the can-do attitude".	TL: transformational leadership
Leader who is approachable, accessible and open to ideas and embraces it	11	"Leadership that is open minded and is always up for new ideas and ways of doing things"; "Leadership that gives you a chance to give inputs on specific matters"; "I prefer the kind of leadership who is open where I feel comfortable to voice my concern whether it is good or bad and know it won't cause any tension."	TL: transformational leadership
Leader who is trustworthy, honest, transparent and fair	9	"Fair and decisive"; "Transparent in decisions made"; "Trustworthy"; "Honesty and compassion"	TL: transformational leadership
Hands-on leadership	7	"Hands-on involved leadership is the best. It makes you feel like you're working together rather than for someone"; "reasonable and fair and more hands-on".	
Leads by example	6	"The leader must be able to show you the way/lead by example"; "Leads by example".	TL: transformational leadership
Trust – not being micro-managed	5	"Not micro-managed and professional in how we are handled"; "I don't like to be micro-managed and in my current space I can clearly say that this is true and I am not being micro-managed"; "I want to be trusted with work and left alone…"	Transformational leadership
Flexible and adaptable	5	"Flexible – being able to implement new technology, new ideas and work"; "Someone flexible"	TL: transformational leadership
Leaders who communicate well	2	"Communicative"; "Open-flat leadership style – good communication and transparency – less red tape."	TL: transformational leadership

Whilst it's true that some of the characteristics relates to more than one leadership style the fact that the categories overlap with the characteristic of transformational leadership confirms the already noted preference for transformational leadership amongst the Generation Y's respondents.

Leaders who motivate, provide feedback and assist the growth of their subordinates, and leaders who are approachable, accessible and open to ideas and who embrace them exhibit the preferred leadership behaviours for Generation Y employees. Various leadership styles, including charismatic leadership, authentic leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership and servant leadership, are defined and explored in Chapter 2. Based on the above findings and literature review, transformational leadership appears to be the favoured leadership style among Generation Y professionals. Transformational leadership, according to Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt and Van Engen (2003), includes mentoring and empowering the follower, as a way in which followers can be developed to their full potential, ultimately allowing them to contribute more value to the organisation. Perspectives supporting transformational leadership as the preferred leadership style of Generation Y professionals include the work produced by Cline (2015) and Kuhl (2014). On the basis of these findings the researcher has identified the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1999), which consists of four sub-scales, (1) idealised influence, (2) inspirational motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) individualised consideration, for utilisation in this study.

3.6.4. Organisational culture and supportive organisational climate (SOC)

Tables 3.9, 3.10 and 3.11 present the frequencies of themes relating to organisational culture and supportive organisational climate. The viability of measuring only one of the constructs, organisational culture or supportive organisational climate, will be explored as the overlap and possible duplication of the concepts are apparent.

Table 3.9
Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to organisational culture

Question: (a) How would you describe the culture of your organisation?

Themes: Descriptive	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Warm, open, friendly, supportive, helpful, uplifting, easy to fit in	12	"It is an environment where one can easily build new relationships and there are no barriers"; "The culture is open, any person can fit into it"; "Easy going and open"	Supportive organisational climate: co-operation and co-ordination, JR: social support, organisational support JE: organisational fit,
Culture that embraces diversity	3	"Flexible and different "type" of people working here"; "very diverse"; "This is a very inclusive company. It has people who accept that people come from different cultures and is open to that"	Organisational culture, supportive organisational climate: co-operation and co-ordination, JR: organisational support, organisational support JE: organisational fit
Work hard, play hard culture	2	"Work hard, play hard culture"	Organisational culture
Disconnection from organisational culture experience	2	"I'm not familiar with the culture simply because I'm at clients most of the time…"	Organisational culture
Team centred organisation	2	"Team work spirit"	Supportive organisational climate: cooperation and coordination
Flexible & informal culture	2	"Culture is flexible"; "The culture is informal and flexible"	Organisational culture

The categorisation of the responses reflect the presence of different constructs, namely social support, organisational support and organisational fit, co-ordination and co-operation. Social support and organisational support can be considered subconstructs of job resources, organisational fit a subconstruct of job embeddedness and co-operation and co-ordination a subconstruct of supportive organisational culture. An overlap can also be observed between job resources, supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness from a content analysis perspective in the higher frequency items. Most respondents described their organisational culture as warm, open, friendly, supportive, helpful, uplifting and easy to fit in. Lower frequencies indicate that the culture embraces cultural diversity, has a "work hard, play hard" ethos, but also a sense of being disconnected from the culture due to working on an outsourced opportunity.

Table 3.10
Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to what is liked about the organisational culture

Question: (b) What do you like the most of your organisation's culture, and….

Theme: Like	**Frequency**	**Examples of interview comments**	**Equivalent constructs**
Type of interaction with colleagues and management and the experience that creates.	14	"Friendly people, caring, easy to interact with"; "I like the informal sense"; "Flat structure –everyone is valuable, not just the senior people. Like that people are trusted to do their jobs"; "The environment is friendly, and it accommodates anyone"	Supportive organisational climate: managerial competence, JR: social support, organisational support, leadership
Feeling supported	7	"Working in a team that has members who are always willing to help"; "Could ask anyone for advice or assistance for work or outside work"	Supportive organisational climate: managerial competence, co-operation and co-ordination, JR: social support
Flexibility	5	"Flexi-time/work from home"; "I like the informal and flexibility"; "I like that it allows flexibility with certain things"	supportive organisational climate: managerial competence, JR: organisational support
Knowledge sharing	4	"Like how people share skills and knowledge"; "I enjoy interacting with many skilled personnel. Knowledge transferred amongst the people who interact"	Supportive organisational climate: co-operation and co-ordination, JR: social support
No micro management	2	"Not too much overall micro-management"	supportive organisational climate: managerial competence
Dress code	2	"Dress code is semi-formal"	Organisational culture
We are all human	1	"We are all human"	
Reciprocity	1	"The more you put in the more you get out"	
Encouragement of creativity	1	"Encourages creativity"	leadership
Money and challenges	1	"At the moment I like the money and the challenge"	Satisfaction with pay, JR: advancement, growth opportunities

The categorisation of the responses reflect the presence of constructs such as managerial competence, organisational support, social support, co-operation and co-ordination. Managerial competence, co-ordination and co-ordination could be seen as subconstructs of supportive organisational culture, whereas organisational support and social support can be seen as subconstructs of job resources. It is clear that there could be an overlap between supportive organisational culture and job resources in the higher frequencies from a content analysis perspective.

Generation Y employees liked the type of interaction they enjoyed with colleagues and management most and the experiences that it creates. Feeling supported was the second highest-ranking item in respect of what they liked most about the organisational culture.

Table 3.11
Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to dislikes of organisational culture
Continuation of question: (c) what do you like the least of your culture?

Themes: Do not like	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Negative perceived environment	8	"Lack of vibrance and lack of creativity"; "The informal nature sometimes tampers with how the work is done and lack of standardisation"; "Relaxed environment"; "I don't like how people take advantage of that privilege"	Organisational culture, Supportive organisational climate: managerial competence
Lack of team building initiatives	6	"We should have more togetherness, we don't really have that"; "No more team builds"; "More team buildings should be done in the company to promote unity within environment and team"	Supportive organisational climate: cooperation and coordination, managerial competence
No comment	5	----------	
Office and facilities	2	"Office workspace can be improved"	Hygiene factors
No fun activities	2	"Less fun activities"	JE: organisational fit
Experience with clients	1	"Difficult clients"	Supportive organisational climate: customer orientation
Lack of development	1	"Lack of training & growth opportunities"	JR: growth opportunities
Lack of communication	1	"Not voicing opinion on good matters or bad, then doing it unofficially"	
"Old Boys Club"	1	"The "old boys club" – be open to more female leaders"	JE: organisational fit

Table 3.11 (continued)

Themes: Do not like	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Indifferent	1	"There is nothing I don't like"	
Lack of cohesion	1	"Not all driving towards the same goal"	Supportive organisational climate: cooperation and coordination
Lack of reward and recognition	1	"I don't like less reward/skill recognition programmes"	Recognition
Incompatibility	1	"And what I don't like is sometimes it doesn't go with my personal beliefs"	JE: organisational fit
Nature of relationships between colleagues	1	"Negative energy from negative people who take it out on others"	Supportive organisational climate: cooperation and coordination

The categorisation of the responses reflect the presence of different constructs, but in this case mostly that of supportive organisational climate. Organisational culture is also present. Managerial competence, as well as co-ordination and co-operation, which could be seen as subconstructs of supportive organisational support.

A negative environment was identified as the theme Generation Y professionals liked the least. Examples of what was perceived as a negative environment included "lack of vibrancy and lack of creativity". Second to this is the perceived lack of team building initiatives, which may speak to the need of Generation Ys to be connected, to be learning and the need to have fun in the workplace. One might ask whether fulfilling of this need would play a role in their decision regarding the intention to quit.

The type of organisational culture that is preferred by Generation Y professionals is one characterised by warmth, openness, friendliness, supportiveness, and helpfulness, being uplifting and making it easy to fit in. These themes are very closely linked to the dimensions of supportive organisational climate. As discussed in Chapter 2, there is a very fine line between organisational culture and organisational climate. To reiterate, according to Schneider and Snyder (1975), organisational climate can be understood to be a subset within organisational culture and refers to the employees' evaluation of their work environment, which includes structures, processes and events. Other scholars, such as Hofstede (2003), Rousseau (1990) and Schein (2004), have described culture as comprising values and climate. In an organisational context, values are viewed as fundamental, often unconscious, ways of understanding and evaluating the world. Climate, on the other hand, is viewed as the tangible and observable practices, systems and outcomes.

Considering the above discussion, the supportive organisational climate questionnaire, in the form of an adapted version of the Supportive Organisational Climate Questionnaire developed by Rogg et al. (2001), was deemed suitable for measuring Generation Y professionals' perception of the supportive organisational climate. Four dimensions are measured by this questionnaire, namely (1) co-operation/coordination, (2) employee commitment, (3) managerial competence and consistency, and (4) customer orientation.

3.6.5. Job resources (JR)

Tables 3.12 and 3.13 present the frequency of themes relating to JR in terms of the aspects that facilitated optimal performance and aspects that detract from optimal performance.

Table 3.12
Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to job resources
Question: (a) Which aspects of your job make it easier to perform optimally?

Themes	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Teamwork and supportive environment	13	"Being trusted to do my job and have a supportive manager and exec"; "When I know I got support and all I need to perform knowing what I need to do"; "Colleagues, team members that care about you personally to a sufficient extent and this motivates"	Organisational culture, supportive organisational climate: cooperation and coordination, JR: social support
Available resources	8	"Tools available"; "Having 24 hours internet/company access – can continue to work after hours"; "Working environment makes it easier. Having the right tools and training make performing optimally easier"	Job resources
Freedom and flexibility	6	"Freedom makes it easy for me to perform – just that flexibility"; "Allowed me freedom to make decisions, makes me perform optimally"; "Flexibility – use my time as it fits my day as long as my work gets done"; "Able to take work home"	Organisational culture, supportive organisational climate: managerial competence

Table 3.12 (continued)

Themes	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Role clarity	5	"Clear understanding of what needs to be done"; "The correct information/documentation"; "Clear instructions and goals, more communication"; "Guidance and knowing what is expected makes it easier to perform optimally"	Supportive organisational climate: managerial competence, leadership
Good leadership & no micro-management	4	"No micro-management and helps me to perform"; "Good leadership"	leadership
Timeous feedback	2	"Time management if things are done quickly and given feedback about the projects then it helps me to do my job effectively and efficiently"; "Timeous feedback"	leadership
No comment	2	----------	
Organisational climate	1	"Positivity"	
Interest	1	"Interest"	
Planning	1	"Proper planning"	
Skills sets	1	"Necessary skills within a team"	
Organisational structure	1	"A flat structure makes it easier to get things done – e.g. Don't need approvals to bring a resource on board that does not just increase headcounts but adds to the bottom line"	Organisational culture
Recognition	1	"Acknowledgement"	
Fairness and equality	1	"Fairness – it is very difficult to perform and stay motivated when people are treated unfairly or shown favouritism"	Organisational justice
Embracing change	1	"Work hard, play hard – embrace change"	

The categorisation of the responses reflects the presence of different constructs namely co-operation, co-ordination, managerial competence and social support. As mentioned before co-ordination, co-operation and managerial support can be deemed as subconstructs of supportive organisational climate, whereas social support could be deemed as a subconstruct of job resources which is also found in the higher frequencies.

The aspects of job resources that were ranked the highest, which make optimal performance easier, are teamwork and a supportive environment, good resources ("Having the right tools and training make performance optimally easier.") and having freedom and flexibility.

Table 3.13
Themes, frequencies and interview comments related to job resources
Question: (b) Which aspects of your job make it more difficult to perform optimally?

Theme	Frequency	Examples of interview comments	Equivalent Constructs
Lack of information & resources to perform	7	"Not enough insight to the projects or background on the job can make it difficult"; "Having to do something with half the background information, being forced into direction"; "When I do not have all the resources needed to perform my job"	JR: organisational support, supportive organisational climate: managerial competence
Lack of support & not being trusted	5	"No support contributes to difficulties and micro-management"; "Having to go through red tape to get tolls and training makes it difficult. Not getting the right support".	JR: organisational support, Supportive organisational climate: managerial competence
Formal or informal interruptions & interference	5	"Constant interference"; "scope change marathons"; "Distractions is everywhere since it is a very open company".	
Lack of team competence	5	"Proper training across the board makes everyone's job better"; "Having to read the work of incompetent people makes it difficult"; "People not completing their tasks leaving you to do their work as well."	JR: organisational support, Supportive organisational climate: cooperation and coordination
Job overload	4	"Too many 'yes men'. This can create unrealistic goals and deadlines. Constant feeling of failure"; "Too little time to complete"; "Tight timelines and waiting for difficult people."	Supportive organisational climate: managerial competence
Lack of flexibility & access to client	3	"Lack of flexi-time and the distance travelled–emotionally and physically draining"; "Difficult to perform not enough access at the client"	Supportive organisational culture: customer orientation
Lack of structure	2	"Some lack of structure hinders performance to a degree."	JR: organisational support, organisational culture
Lack of acknowledgement	1	"No acknowledgement for a job well, done."	Supportive organisational climate: managerial competence, organisational culture
Remuneration	1	"Salary"	Satisfaction with pay

Lastly, the categories of the responses reflect the presence of different constructs similar to the previous findings relating to the requirements to perform optimally, namely organisational support, managerial competence, and co-ordination and co-operation are found amongst the higher frequencies. Organisational support can be seen as a subconstruct of job resources whilst managerial competence, co-operation and co-ordination can be seen as subconstructs of supportive organisational climate. An overlap is again evident between the constructs from a content analysis perspective.

The aspects of job resources that were ranked highest in terms of the barriers to optimal performance were lack of information and resources ("Not enough insight to the projects or background on the job can make it difficult"), formal and informal interruptions and interference, lack of support and trust, lack of training, experience and non-performance of team members.

As discussed in Chapter 2, job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that either (1) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (2) are functional in achieving work goals, or (3) stimulate personal growth, learning and development (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). According to Hobfoll (2002), resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands and to 'get things done', but they also are critical in their own right.

The Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) was developed by Jackson and Rothmann (2005) to measure job demands and job resources. The JDRS consists of 40 items about pace and amount of work, mental load, emotional load, variety in work, opportunities to learn, independence in work, relationships with colleagues, relationship with immediate supervisor, ambiguities about work, information, communications, participation, contact possibilities, uncertainty about the future, remuneration, and career possibilities (Rothmann, Mostert, & Strydom, 2006). An adapted version of the questionnaire was used in this study to maintain brevity and ensure ease of use (Roux, 2014). There was also the recognition that some of the items in this measure are covered by other sections of the composite questionnaire for this study, which will give rise to unnecessary duplications.

3.7. QUALITY CONTROL FOR THE PRESENT QUALITATIVE STUDY

Several ways to evaluate the quality of the content analysis is recommended. Four of these approaches are presented by King and Horrocks (2011). The first method by which to assess the quality is to use independent coding or a panel of experts to perform a quality check. The second method is triangulation of data through a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods. The third method is to make a request to participants to evaluate the interpretation and confirm whether it reflects their experience. The fourth method includes the provision of thick descriptions and audit trails that illustrate the process that was followed in the study.

For this study the following quality control measures were employed: (a) two experts reviewed the interview data captured from the interview transcripts and cross-checked it against the themes from the data analysis; (b) participants were asked to clarify whether the interpretation reflected their experience that was captured via the use of a tape recorder during the focus group sessions, and (c) the application of thick descriptions in reporting the results was also applied. An audit trail illustration of the process that was followed is presented in this chapter and more specifically in paragraph 3.5.

In the analysis of the data the researcher started by reading through the detailed notes recorded in the interview guides stemming from the semi-structured interviews. The purpose of the initial step was to obtain a high-level overview of the data. As the coding process is inductive in nature this was an important step. Subsequent to that codes were selected on the basis that sections of the text were linked to data which was meaningful to the researcher, hence the overview of the data was pivotal. The text recorded in the interview guides was used to identify units of meaning which was found in one or more sentences or phrases. The unit of meaning was coded and the associated codes were categorised. This process included reading the texts multiple times. The data was coded for frequency and subsequently analysed in order to extract themes and higher-order themes emerging from the data. For the purposes of illustrating the substantive content of the theme's examples of both positive and negative comments are highlighted and presented in the tables above.

3.8. LIMITATIONS OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

The fact that the researcher was employed by two of the organisations where the research was conducted may be deemed as a limitation. Although being employed by the organisation could also be viewed as an advantage in gaining access to Generation Y employees, the possibility of bias on the side of the researcher and respondents could have been a reality. The researcher minimised this limitation by maintaining a professional, academic approach with empathy, which is considered a good practice during data collection in qualitative research. Within the organisational context the researcher serves as an advisor to leadership and the findings of the research were intended to serve Generation Ys by helping business leaders to understand the antecedents to intention to quit.

3.9. SUMMARY

The chapter presented an overview of the mixed methods research design, as well as the sequential exploratory design. The sample frame and interview procedure, as well as the sample selection and the sample characteristics were discussed, followed by the biographical characteristics of the participants in Phase 1. The objective of using the qualitative study as a building block for the quantitative study was achieved. Themes that emerged from the content analysis were considered and contributed to the compilation of the self-compiled quantitative research questionnaire. The content analysis process was discussed in detail, providing insight into the coding of the data, which

will be utilised to revisit the preliminary conceptual model, as well as the interim propositions defined. The modified conceptual model will be discussed in Chapter 4, including the revised propositions based on the modified conceptual model. The structuring of the focus groups allowed the researcher to delve deeper into the questions as per the interview guide. The responses elicited during the discussions enabled further exploration of the responses that were written down and handed to the researcher after the session. The information collected constituted feedback with quality and depth. The methodology applied in the quantitative phase of this study is presented next.

CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGY OF THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This section of the research methodology describes the pilot testing (Phase 2) of the self-compiled questionnaire, as well as the quantitative final phase (Phase 3) of the study. During the final phase the propositions with respect to the antecedents to the intention to quit among Generation Y professionals were tested empirically.

An explanation of the choice of the questionnaire as the research instrument is presented first. This is followed by a discussion of the steps taken in compiling the composite online questionnaire, followed by the data collection, data analyses and findings of Phase 2 (pilot phase). A discussion of how the data was used and implemented in preparation for the final phase is presented. Then the description of the research population, sample size and sampling technique applicable to the final phase is presented.

The discussion ends with the description of the techniques used to evaluate the propositions about the relationships between the variables of this study.

As discussed above, the outcome of Phase 1 (qualitative phase) informed Phases 2 and 3 (pilot phase and quantitative strand). Phase 1 consisted of semi-structured interviews and focus groups within which participants were asked to answer questions based on the preceding literature review, which informed the evaluation of the content of the measuring instrument. The researcher considered additional themes generated during Phase 1 for inclusion in the compilation of the questionnaire, as well as in the propositions and the structural model developed for this study.

The main finding during Phase 1 was the necessity to include satisfaction with pay. After the data analysis of the qualitative phase, the measuring instruments were selected for the overarching self-compiled questionnaire, ensuring that the most salient themes that were identified in the process were covered. One of the main objectives of Phase 2 was to obtain feedback from Generation Y employees on the user experience of the online questionnaire and to elicit feedback with respect to any proposed changes to and enhancements needed of the online questionnaire. This feedback was to be implemented where viable and reasonable before embarking on Phase 3.

4.2. COMPILING THE QUESTIONNAIRE AS A RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

To select the appropriate and applicable measuring instruments, it was important for the researcher to review the initial research question, objectives, propositions and the proposed theoretical model. This review needed to consider the outcome of the findings of Phase 1 and modify them where necessary in preparation for Phase 2 (pilot phase).

4.2.1. Modification of research questions

The three research questions based on the outcome of the findings of Phase 1 were modified as follows:

- Do organisational and individual constructs, such as transformational leadership, job resources, supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness, serve as antecedents to the intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals in South Africa?
- What is the relationship between intention to quit (dependent variable) and organisational variables such as perceived leadership qualities, job resources, supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness?
- Can a conceptual model of intention to quit be built depicting the combined influence of organisational variables, such as transformational leadership, job resources, supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness on intention to quit?

4.2.2. Modification of research objectives

The following are the initial objectives that were formulated after Phase 1 to respond to the stated problem:

- To investigate the scope of antecedents that influence the intention to quit and to propose a theoretical model of variables influencing intention to quit amongst Generation Y employees in the IT industry.
- To empirically determine the nature of the relationships between the identified variables and intention to quit in Generation Y IT professionals.
- To make recommendations to recruiters, HR professionals, talent managers and business leaders within software development organisations on the intentional and purposeful management and retention in Generation Y professionals.

As the outcome of Phase 1 did not indicate any other significant variables that had not already been considered, except satisfaction with pay, the initial objectives of the research were to remain unchanged. Note that transformational leadership did surface as the most preferred variable and hence was considered the most applicable perceived leadership style for this study.

4.2.3. Modification of propositions

The initial propositions were reviewed and modified in the following manner:

- ▪ Symbol indicates the initial proposition
- ○ Symbol indicates the modified proposition
- ✓ Symbol indicates the unchanged or added proposition

❖ Symbol indicates the removal of a proposition

❑ Symbol indicates the addition of a proposition

Proposition 1:

- Perceived leadership qualities are correlated with job embeddedness.

○ Transformational leadership is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 2:

- Job resources are correlated with job embeddedness.

○ Job resources are positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 3:

- Organisational culture is correlated with job embeddedness.

❖ Organisational culture is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

It was decided to measure supportive organisational climate as opposed to organisational culture as the length of the questionnaire had been criticised. Based on the feedback from the focus groups the supportive organisational climate was emphasised.

Proposition 4:

- Supportive organisational climate is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

✓ Supportive organisational climate is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 5:

- Endorsement of Generation Y values moderates the relationship between leadership qualities, job resources, organisational culture, organisational supportive climate and job embeddedness.

❖ Endorsement of Generation Y values moderates the relationship between leadership qualities, job resources, organisational culture, organisational supportive climate and job embeddedness.

It was decided to remove the proposition because the length of the questionnaire was criticised and because of the unavailability of the Generation Y values moderation questionnaire at the time of field work for this research project.

Proposition 6:

- The job embeddedness dimension of organisational links will be negatively correlated to turnover intention.

○ Job embeddedness will be negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

Proposition 7:

- The job embeddedness dimension of organisational sacrifice will be negatively correlated with turnover intention.
  - Job embeddedness will be negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

Proposition 8:

- The job embeddedness of organisational fit will be negatively correlated with turnover intentions.
  - Job embeddedness will be negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

Proposition 9:

- Satisfaction with pay is positively correlated with job embeddedness.

Proposition 10:

- The relationship between transformational leadership and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness.

Proposition 11:

- The relationship between job resources and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness.

Proposition 12:

- The relationship between supportive climate and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness.

Proposition 13:

- The relationship between satisfaction with pay and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness.

The study commenced with eight preliminary propositions and after review, as discussed in Chapter 4, the number of propositions increased to eleven. A decision was made to remove proposition 5: Endorsement of Generation Y values moderates the relationship between leadership qualities, job resources, organisation culture, organisation supportive climate and job embeddedness. The proposition regrettably could not be examined as anticipated and planned because the measurement instrument was not available on time. The measurement model was going to be produced by a study which was running concurrently with this research project. In addition to the measurement instrument not being available timeously a further reason for omitting this questionnaire was based on the feedback from the focus group indicating that the composite questionnaire was already lengthy in nature. This would be a recommendation for future research: to examine the moderation effect of the endorsement of Generation Y values and the relationship between transformational leadership,

supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness. Propositions 6-8 dealing with job embeddedness were collapsed into one proposition which postulates that job embeddedness will be negatively correlated with intention to quit. A further decision was made to retain the supportive organisational climate measure and remove the organisational culture proposition as the questionnaire was criticised for being too lengthy. The choice to retain supportive organisational climate over organisational culture was based on the fact that creating a climate is possible in a short period of time as opposed to creating a culture.

4.2.4. Modification of initial conceptual model

Figure 4.1 depicts the initial conceptual model and Figure 4.2 the modified conceptual model based on the outcome of Phase 1 of the research process.

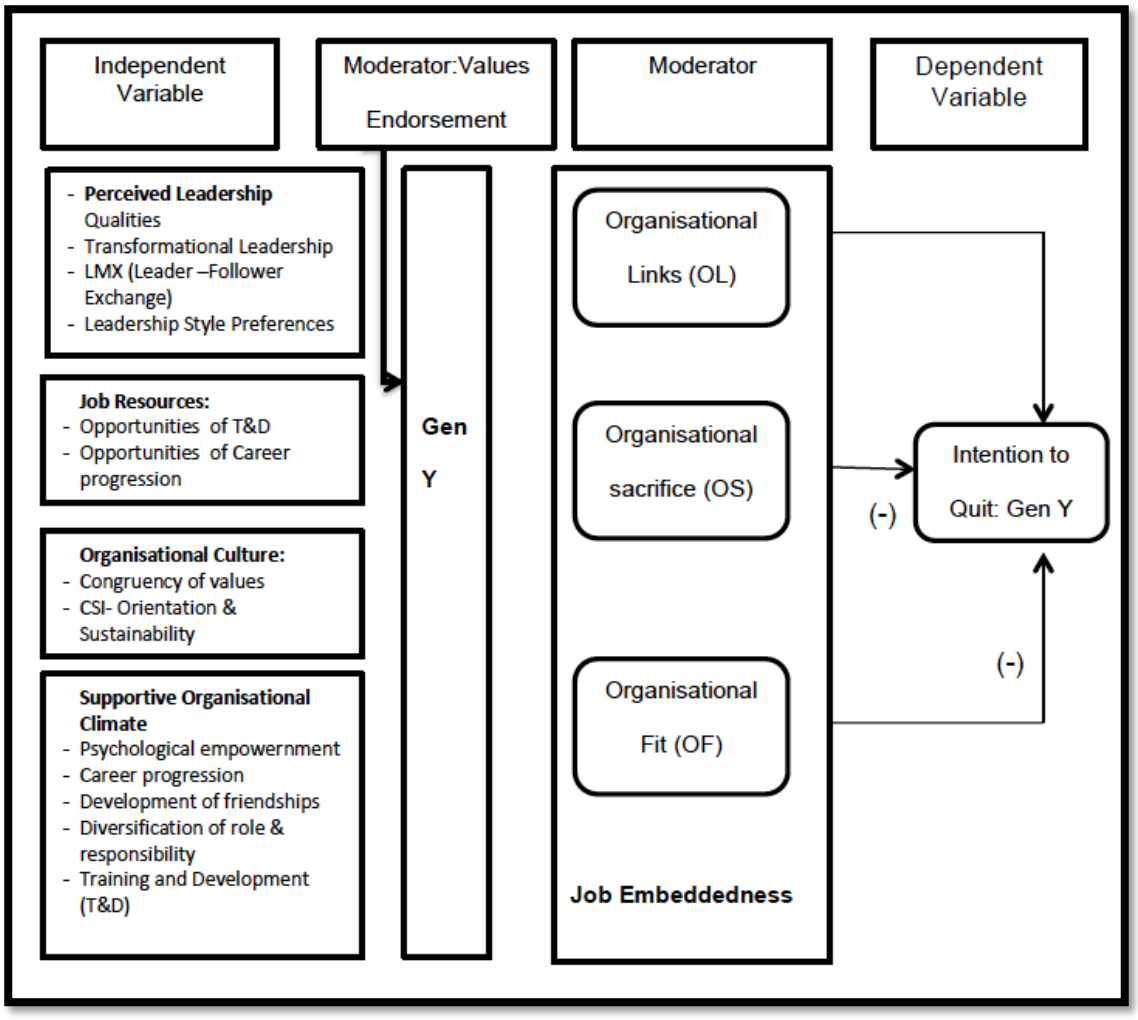


Figure 4.1: Initial proposed conceptual model

The modified conceptual model, in view of the above modifications of the research questions, objectives and propositions, is presented in Figure 4.2 below. A brief synopsis of the dimensions of each variable is also presented, including the proposed measuring instrument with its psychometric properties.

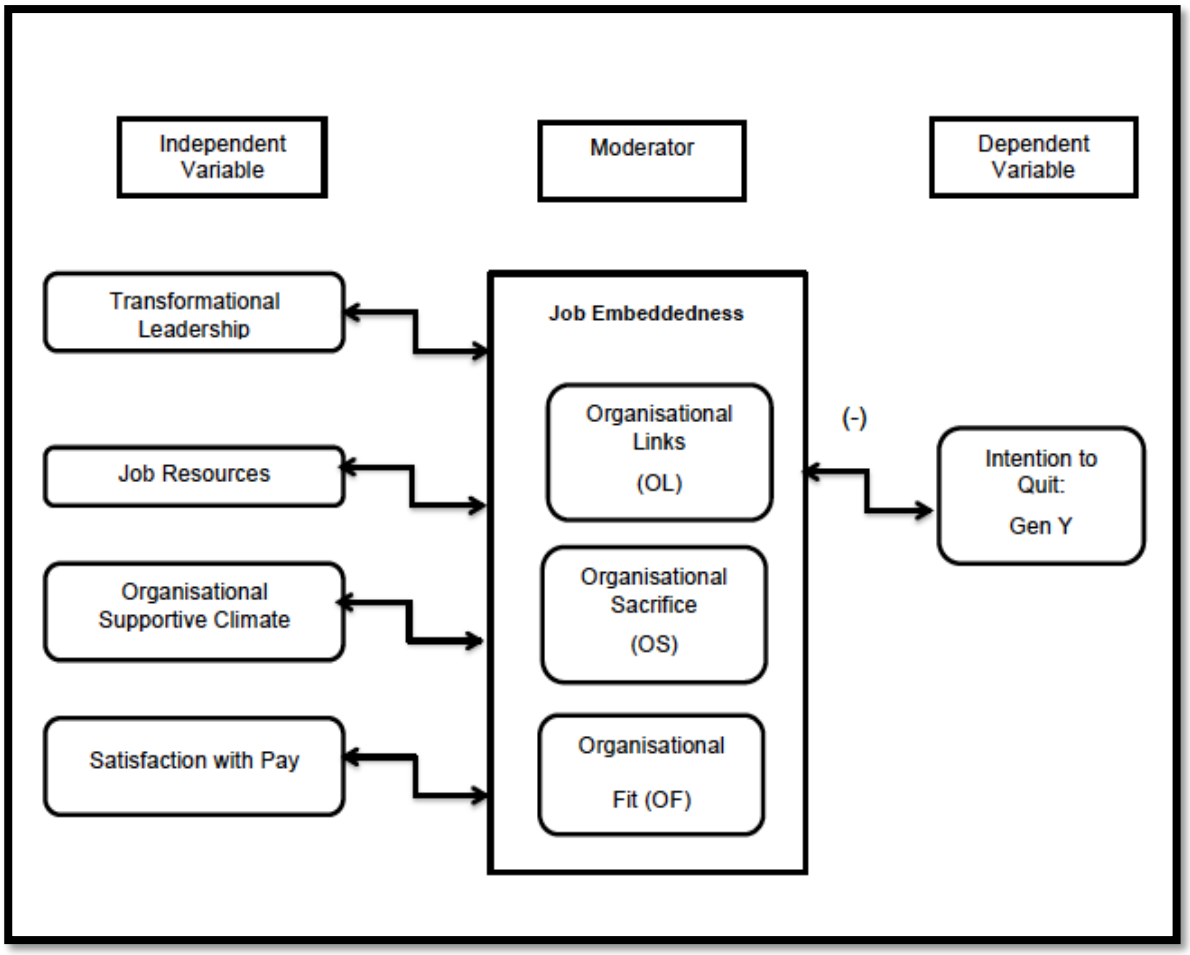


Figure 4.2: Modified proposed conceptual model

4.3. QUANTITATIVE STRAND- PHASE 2

The primary aim of the quantitative strand (Phase 2) was to obtain user experience feedback from Generation Y employees and to validate whether all the factors pertaining to the antecedents to the intention to quit were covered. The feedback obtained from the pilot phase was used to improve and enhance the online questionnaire where feasible, as previously mentioned. The final conceptualisation of the self-compiled questionnaire was informed by this information unearthed in Phase 2.

In the following section the research design that was utilised for Phase 2 will be discussed.

4.4. COMPILATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Standardised measuring instruments were selected to measure the variables that were identified in this study. A discussion of each of the proposed measuring instruments and its psychometric properties is presented below. For the purposes of this study the term leadership refers to the direct managers, supervisors or team leaders to whom Generation Y employees report. Based on Generation Ys' responses in Phase 1 and a literature overview of leadership styles, transformational

leadership appeared to be the most relevant leadership style. In the self-compiled questionnaire Generation Y employees were therefore asked to evaluate the perceived transformational leadership behaviours of their managers, supervisors or team leaders, and their perceived levels of job resources, the perceived organisational climate and their intention to quit. In addition, respondents were requested to provide biographical information about themselves such as age, gender, race, qualifications, and tenure.

Against the backdrop of the initial research question and the modified propositions, the measuring instruments that were employed in this study, including their psychometric properties, are discussed in the next section.

A rule of thumb to remember for the section below is that the higher the α values, the greater the internal reliability (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998).

4.4.1. Transformational leadership (TL)

Transformational leadership was measured by an adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which has four dimensions, namely (1) idealised influence, (2) inspirational leadership, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) individualised consideration (Bass, 1999; Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). The MLQ was developed by Bass and Avolio (1995), and it is a 6-point rating scale ranging from 1, “almost never” to 6, “almost always”.

The MLQ was identified by Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams (1999) as the most utilised measuring instrument. The MLQ has also been cited extensively by Bass (1997) in numerous studies across various industries and continents, which supports the reliability and validity of the original questionnaire. Transformational leadership has been measured by several researchers employing the MLQ over the last few decades (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994; Avolio & Bass; 2004; Dai et al., 2013).

The MLQ consists of three subscales, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership (Roux, 2014). An adapted version of the MLQ, which excludes the transactional and laissez-faire subscales, was used for this study. Only items relating to transformational leadership were therefore included in the questionnaire. The conceptual model and the findings of Phase 1 informed this decision. The MLQ also offers a multi-rater scale that provides an opportunity for leaders to self-report or employees to evaluate their leaders. In this study the employee-rater version was used within which Generation Y employees were asked to rate their immediate leaders on their transformational leadership behaviour.

Supporting the validity of the MLQ, a number of studies in various sectors found that transformational leadership has a strong positive relationship with a broad range of outcome variables, including job satisfaction and commitment (Alimo-Metcalfe & Lawler, 2001; Bass, 1998).

A study conducted by Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) found high correlations among the transformational leadership dimensions at a subordinate and self-report level (*r*'s ranged from .70 to .91 for subordinate reports and from .49 to .73 for superior self-reports).

In examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the MLQ, Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) found that for the 36-item MLQ-5Xsurvey the intercorrelations amongst the transformational scales were generally high and positive. The average of the inter-correlations among the transformational scales was .81.

An item analysis by Krafft, Engelbrecht, and Theron (2004) produced good reliabilities for the four transformational leadership subscales in a South African study ($0{,}72 < \alpha < 0{,}84$). Through confirmatory factor analyses, unidimensionality was assured on all four transformational leadership sub-scales, and factors loaded satisfactorily ($0{,}57 < \lambda < 0{,}83$) on the postulated dimensions (Krafft et al., 2004).

Table 4.1 presents examples of the items measuring transformational leadership.

Table 4.1
Examples of transformational leadership items

Item	Subscale Question Example	Corresponding Subscale
9	My immediate supervisor/manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	Inspirational leadership
16	My immediate supervisor/manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	Idealised influence
17	My immediate supervisor/manager spends time supporting and coaching.	Individualised consideration
26	My immediate supervisor/manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete task/assignments.	Intellectual stimulation

4.4.2. Job resources (JR)

The Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) was developed by Rothmann et al. (2006). An adapted version of the JDRS scale (Roux, 2014) including only the measure of job resources, which comprises of 34 items, was used in this study. This questionnaire is rated on a six-point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree. There are various types of job resources; however, in terms of the JDRS, there are four resource dimensions, namely (1) social support, (2)

organisational support, (3) growth opportunities, and (4) advancement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Jackson & Rothmann, 2005).

Jackson and Rothmann (2005) found that the dimensions of the JDRS consisted of seven reliable factors and the alpha coefficients are organisational support (= .88), growth opportunities (= .80), overload (= .75), job insecurity (= .90), relationship with colleagues (= .76), control (= .71), and rewards (= .8).

In a study conducted by Rothmann and Joubert (2007) that investigated job demands, job resources, burnout and work engagement of managers at a platinum mine in South Africa, they found that the JDRS demonstrated sufficient reliability through Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from .79 to .94.

De Braine and Roodt (2011) examined the job resources model as a predictor of work identity and work engagement in an information and communication technologies (ITC) organisation in South Africa. In this study they utilised the JDRS as well and found that the internal consistency for job resources was .94.

Table 4.2 presents examples of the items measuring job resources.

Table 4.2
Examples of job resources items

Item	Subscale Question Example	Corresponding Subscale
32	Does your job offer you opportunities for personal growth and development?	Growth opportunities
39	If necessary, can you ask your colleagues for help?	Social support
48	Do you receive sufficient information on the results of your work?	Organisational support
58	Does your organisation give you the opportunities to follow training courses?	Advancement

4.4.3. Supportive organisational climate (SOC)

The supportive organisational climate questionnaire has four subscales, namely (1) employee commitment, (2) cooperation or coordination, (3) managerial competence, and (4) consistency and customer orientation. The four climate subscales include six items assessing employee commitment (e.g. employees make personal sacrifices, when required, to help the organisation succeed), five cooperation and coordination items (e.g. departments cooperate to get the job done efficiently and effectively), eight managerial competence and consistency items (e.g. managers clearly communicate work objectives and responsibilities), and four customer orientation items (e.g. employees are committed to developing and maintaining long-term relationships with customers). Coefficient alpha for the four items ranged from .80 to .90 in a study conducted by Rogg et al. (2001),

using the supportive organisational climate questionnaire. In addition, the intercorrelations of the four scales ranged from .48 to .68 with a median of .59.

Table 4.3 presents examples of the items measuring supportive organisational climate.

Table 4.3
Examples of supportive organisational climate items

Item	Subscale Question Example	Corresponding Subscale
87	Managers clearly communicate work objectives and responsibilities	Managerial competence
95	Employees would stay with this organisation even if offered a job elsewhere	Employee commitment
100	Departments co-operate to get the job done effectively and efficiently	Co-operation and co-ordination
104	Employees are committed to developing and maintaining long-term relationships with customers.	Consistency and customer orientation

4.4.4. Job embeddedness (JE)

Job embeddedness, as previously discussed, has three dimensions, namely (1) organisational sacrifice, (2) organisational links, and (3) organisational fit (Mitchell et al., 2001b, Peltokorpi, 2013; Ryan & Harden, 2014).

In a study on job embeddedness conducted by Mitchell et al. (2001b) in a hospital and grocery store chain to predict voluntary turnover, it was found that the alpha coefficient for organisational fit was .75 and .88 for the hospital and the grocery store chain respectively. For organisational links it was .65 for the grocery chain store and .62 for the hospital, and an alpha coefficient of .82 was achieved in both environments for organisational sacrifice.

Clinton, Knight and Guest (2012) measured job embeddedness as a new attitudinal measure in three UK-based military services and an IT organisation. They found that the on-the-job dimensions of the JE demonstrated high internal reliability ($\alpha = .90$). The test-retest correlation for on-the-job embeddedness was .89, while the intra-class correlation was .94.

Ghosh and Gurunathan (2014) found that in their study, the three organisation-focused dimensions (organisational fit, link and sacrifice), when aggregated, formed the overarching job embeddedness construct, with an α of .83.

Table 4.4 presents examples of the items measuring job embeddedness.

Table 4.4
Examples of job embeddedness items

Item	Subscale Questions Example	Corresponding Subscale
68	I fit with this organisation's culture.	Organisational fit
73	I would incur a few costs if I left this organisation	Organisational sacrifice
83	How many work teams are you on?	Organisational links

4.4.5. Pay satisfaction measurement

The pay satisfaction questionnaire (PSQ) is an 18-item scale which was developed by Heneman and Schwab (1985). The questionnaire has four subscales namely (1) level, (2) raises, (3) benefits and (4) structure/admin. The items are measured by using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) “not satisfied” to (5) “extremely satisfied”.

The instrument was reported to demonstrate sufficient reliability and dimensionality and, in a study, conducted by Judge and Welbourne (1994) found supporting evidence for the four-factor structure of the instrument. The internal consistency of the subscales was found to be excellent (.96 to .82).

Table 4.5 presents examples of the items measuring pay satisfaction.

Table 4.5
Examples of pay satisfaction items

Item	Example	Corresponding Subscale
108	My take-home pay.	Level
114	The raises I have typically received in the past.	Raises
122	The number of benefits I receive.	Benefits
125	How the company administers pay	Structure/Admin

4.4.6. Intention to quit measurement

Intention to quit was measured using a three-item scale developed by George and Joji (2011). The three items were: (1) “I will probably look for a new job next year”, (2) “I often think about quitting”, (3) “I will likely actively look for a new job in the next year”. The items are measured by using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

Acker (2008) found in a study she conducted in New York with mental health service providers, a Cronbach alpha of .83 and a mean score of 1.8 (SD=1.66).

In a study by Basar and Sigri (2015) the reliability of the questionnaire was assessed as α = .92 and their confirmatory factor analysis indicated that 77.73 per cent of variance was explained by one dimension.

A recent study conducted by Queiri, Yusoff and Dwaikat (2015) in a Malaysian context, attempting to explain Generation Ys' turnover behaviour, found the composite reliability for ITQ to be .87, with an average variance of .7.

Table 4.6 presents examples of the items measuring intention to quit.

Table 4.6
Examples of intention to quit items

Item	Example
126	I intend to leave the organisation in the next 12 months.
127	I feel strongly about leaving this organisation in the next 12 months.
128	I will likely leave the organisation in the next 12 months.

4.5. THE RESULTANT SELF-COMPILED LIKERT SCALE

In Likert scales, items are arranged on a continuum, with the endpoints indicating extreme positions. Respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with the statement (Graziano & Raulin, 2007).

A 6-point Likert scale was used to measure transformational leadership using the MLQ where 1 indicates "almost never" and 6 being "almost always".

A 7-point Likert scale was used for measuring the remaining variables (i.e. job resources, job embeddedness, supportive organisational climate and intention to quit). The 7-point Likert scale is arranged on a continuum where 1 indicates "strongly disagree" and 7 "strongly agree". Graziano and Raulin (2007) advise that it is good form to group items of the same format together.

The last section of the job embeddedness questionnaire dealing with organisational sacrifice is characterised by open-ended questions based on the nature of the questions. Open-ended questions requesting numeric values were viewed as more favourable in terms of the value they provided when analysing the data.

4.6. COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Respondents were directed to the online questionnaire by means of an e-mail from the researcher or a representative (Generation Y employee). The questionnaire consisted of 120 questions, which

included the biographical section – see Appendix F. The estimated time for the completion of the online questionnaire, if completed uninterrupted, was approximately 20 to 30 minutes.

4.7. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS - PHASE 2 AND PHASE 3

A research website was created through which the online survey administration was to take place. Upon the completion of the online questionnaire the researcher applied ethical clearance from the University of Stellenbosch Business School for Phase 2 and 3, which was granted.

Participants who were part of Phase 1 were sent a link to the survey via email, using the e-mail addresses which they have provided, and were requested to complete the questionnaire. Participants were then asked to attend a focus group session to share their experience of the online questionnaire (refer to Table 4.7 for findings). The voluntary nature of the request was emphasised. Further to this, participants were assured of the confidentiality of their participation and the goals of the questionnaire were explained. The focus group was referred to as Phase 2 and was deemed to be the pilot Phase. Since they have provided the researcher with their email addresses, their anonymity could obviously not be guaranteed, however, the researcher assured them that their anonymity would be strictly protected. It was further confirmed that the survey data would be safely kept in the University of Stellenbosch database. No individual data would be shared with the organisations but only aggregate data.

As with Phase 1 respondents were informed that there were no potential risks or discomforts envisaged by participating in the study. In order for respondents to complete the online questionnaire they had to read the informed consent document where respondents were informed that they could withdraw from the process at any time without consequence, their rights as a participant were explained and the research objectives were discussed. Respondents were also informed that if they had any concerns or questions about the research could contact the researcher (Candice Booysen) or her promoters (Prof. Johan Malan and Dr. Babita Mathur-Helm) and questions about their rights as a research subject could be directed to the Unit of Research Development at the Stellenbosch business school. The above-mentioned ethical considerations were applicable to all the Phases of the research project. Only once they clicked on the “I consent” button to participate were they able to proceed in answering the questionnaire.

Respondents could complete the online questionnaire on their own and at any time of the day. Due to the length of the questionnaire respondents were allowed to save their responses and complete the questionnaire at a later stage.

4.8. DATA COLLECTION

Checkbox 6 Surveys, which is a survey service at the University of Stellenbosch, was used by the researcher for the present study. The same sample used for Phase 1 of the study was asked to

participate on a voluntary basis in the testing of the online questionnaire and to provide feedback on their experience with and view of the questions. These participants were Generation Y software development professionals from Alacrity Technologies, Argility and C-quential. An e-mail was sent to all participants with a link to the online questionnaire. They were asked to complete the questionnaire and after two weeks attend focus group sessions to provide feedback on their experience. The focus group questions provided to participants required them to complete the answer sheet and engage in a discussion on each of the questions (refer to Table 4.7). The written responses were collected at the end of the session and other observations that surfaced through the discussions were captured. Thirty-one (31) employees responded to the pilot phase of the online questionnaire and 13 of the 31 employees attended the subsequent focus group session.

4.9. THE FINDINGS OF PHASE 2 (PILOT PHASE)

Below are questions and responses received for the Phase 2 pilot phase.

Table 4.7
Findings of Phase 2 (pilot phase)

	Focus Group Questions:	Responses:
1.	How did you experience the online questionnaire?	• 3 x Thought provoking • 3 x Insightful • 1 x Enlightening • 1 x Helpful • 3 x Fine –just long • 1 x On point, truthful, relevant & short • 1 x Refreshing
2.	Do you believe the questions tackled all the aspects that influence your intention to quit as a Generation Y employee?	• 12 x Yes • 1 x Respondent felt that job content should be considered as well
3.	What do you think needs to be changed in the questionnaire?	• 4 x Nothing needs to be changed • 1 x Alternating the colours of each line (for easy reading purpose) • 3 x Add option to include comments at the bottom of each page • 1 x The look and feel • 4 x Shorten the questions
4.	What worked well?	• 2 x Being multiple-choice questions. • 5 x Allowing for self-reflection • 2 x Good amount of questions – substance • 3 x Everything worked well • 1 x Format and style of questions
5.	What didn't work well?	• 1 x Include a save and continue option • 2 x no space for general comments • 4 x It was a bit too long • 1 x Look and feel • 3 x Nothing comes to mind • 1 x It was OK – consider incentivising respondents • 1 x Everything worked well

Table 4.7 (continued)

	Focus Group Questions:	Responses:
6.	In having to send the online questionnaire to friends, what do you think the researcher needs to be mindful of?	• 1 x Answers might be biased in response, should it be the case, but in this particular instance the questionnaire was anonymous, so this should receive honest feedback. • 1 x Keeping respondents interested in completing the survey • 1 x Not everyone will have time to complete survey • 3 x Incentivise – people will only complete if beneficial to them • 1 x Different organisations might have different experiences • 2 x All important • 1 x Time to complete is too long • 2 x No response • 1 x If estimated it shouldn't look like spam
7.	Any other recommendations?	• 11 x None • 1 x As much as I believe the focus of the research is on millennials, the research could be extended to uncover the view of management who are not millennials and their views on how millennials ought to be managed. • 1x Consider identifier by e-mail
8.	Can you refer Generation Y professionals who you think will have interesting views like you in the software development industry?	• Names and surnames provided • Some e-mail addresses were provided

Gleaned from the above data, as well as the comments captured by the researcher during the focus group session, the following key themes emerged:

- The look and feel of the survey needed improvement – appealing to Generation Y employees.
- A save-and-complete button needed to be added to enable participants to come back to complete the questionnaire if interrupted; providing them with the option of coming back to the survey at a later stage.
- The suggestion was made that the contact details of the researcher be added if the respondents experienced technical challenges.
- The addition of a comment box after each questionnaire was to be added in case the respondents wanted to add additional thoughts.
- The observation was made that the survey was too long, but appreciation for the need to cover all elements was expressed. It was further agreed that changes to the look and feel would

suffice to keep respondents engaged throughout completing the survey. The focus group deemed none of the sections of the questionnaire insignificant enough to be removed from the questionnaire.

- A decision was taken not to reduce the number of questions to avoid compromising on the validity and reliability of the instruments.

4.10. UTILISATION OF FEEDBACK POST-PILOT PHASE

- The look and feel of the online questionnaire were improved with the help of a graphic designer.
- A save-and-exit option was introduced to the online questionnaire.
- The provision of a comment box at the end of each page was made for additional feedback.
- The questionnaire was not shortened as this might have compromised its psychometric properties.
- An incentive system was designed as proposed by one of the participants and agreed upon by others verbally during the focus group. The incentive system was as follows:
    - R1500 voucher for referral (lucky draw)
    - R1500 voucher for the referred (lucky draw)

Participants who participated in Phase 1 and the focus group activities were eligible to win a voucher to the value of R1500 by referring the survey to their Generation Y colleagues in the software development industry. This was monitored by each of those who volunteered to participate in the last part of the study being furnished with a unique code. In turn, they had to ask their friends to enter the unique code when completing the questionnaire. See appendix G for internal and external communications.

4.11. RESEARCH POPULATION OF THE QUANTITATIVE STUDY

The research population targeted for Phase 2 of this study was the same as the Phase 1 population, and therefore the criteria remained unchanged. The target population therefore was Generation Y employees in the software development industry in South Africa who were born between 1980 and 2000.

4.12. SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

For the purposes of Phase 2 the purposive sampling technique was applied to the Generation Y employees who were approached in Phase 1 (through the purposive sampling method) to answer the online questionnaire. The e-mail addresses of the sample in Phase 1 were made available by the respondents who verbally gave their consent to be included in Phase 2 of the study at the end

of Phase 1. These participants were then approached and asked to complete the questionnaire and pass it on to other Generation Y IT professionals within their network.

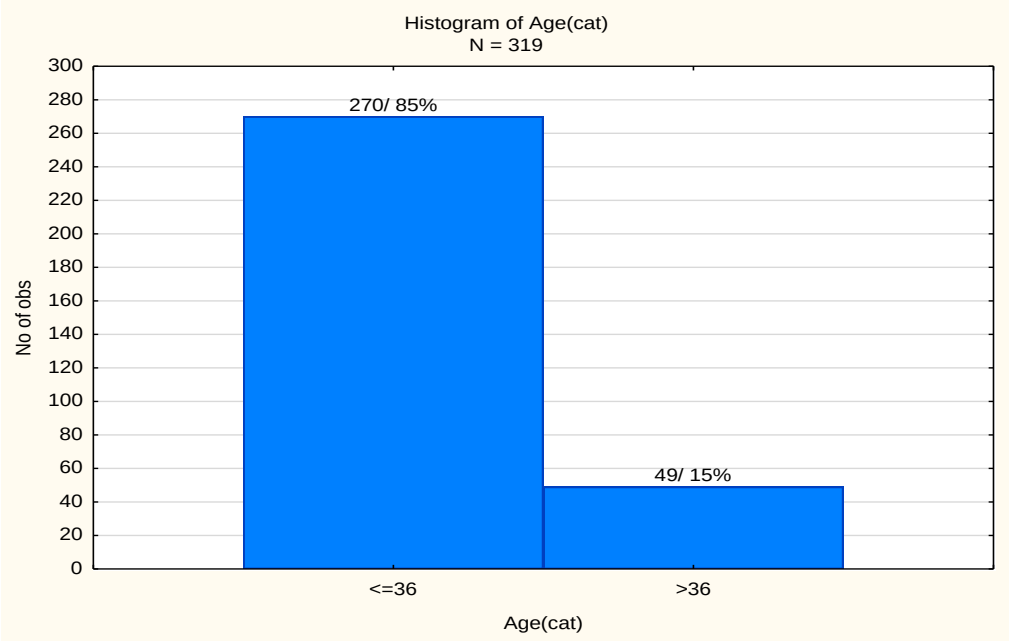
Babbie and Mouton (2006) describe the snowball technique as the collection of data from the target population that can be located and asking those individuals the information needed to locate other members of that population that they might know. Additionally, Babbie and Mouton (2006) describe this technique as a process of accumulation as each located subject suggests other subjects. According to Faugier and Sargeant (1997, p. 793) “snowball sampling relies on the behaviour or ‘trait’ under study being social and participants sharing with others the characteristic under examination”. The snowball sampling method is often used when it is difficult to identify members of a particular population with specific characteristics and relevant knowledge (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 1997).

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), a study utilising psychometric assessments must include at least 100 subjects, depending on the number of tests or instruments in the battery. A sample size of 300 respondents was planned for Phase 3 and the strategy was to utilise the technique of snowball sampling. Accessing a greater population of Generation Ys in the software development industry could prove to be challenging. The snowball sample technique was therefore also deemed appropriate for Phase 3 of this study where Generation Ys were requested to refer the study to their friends and colleagues who were Generation Y and exposed to the IT industry. The criteria remained the same as in Phase 1, where only questionnaires completed by employees born between 1980 and 2000 were utilised and only data from professionals who were working in the IT industry was used.

4.13. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS OF PHASE 3

During the quantitative strand (Phase 3), 319 completed questionnaires were obtained. Forty-nine of the respondents, however, had to be excluded as they fell outside of the Generation Y cohort and therefore only 270 questionnaires were deemed usable. Figure 4.3 presents the age histogram illustrating the completed data sets received.

Figure 4.3: Histogram of qualifying and non-qualifying respondents in terms of age



The characteristics of the sample of Generation Y respondents (N=270) who participated in the main study (Phase 3) are presented in the section below. The biographical characteristics are presented in the tables below in terms of gender, age, language, ethnic group, highest qualification and occupational level in current position.

Table 4.8 reports on the distribution of race and gender in the current sample:

Table 4.8
Frequency distribution: Race by gender of respondents (Phase 3 – n=270)

Race	**Female (% Total)**	**Male (% Total)**
Asian	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Black (African)	58 (21%)	72 (27%)
Coloured	10 (4%)	22 (8%)
Indian	8 (3%)	30 (11%)
White	15 (6%)	55 (20%)

Most of the respondents were African males (27%) followed by African females (21%) and then white males (20%).

The following table reports on the age distribution in the current sample:

Table 4.9
Frequency distribution: Age of respondents (Phase 3 – n=270)

Age Category (Years)	Number of Respondents (% Total)
19-25	63 (23%)
26-30	101 (38%)
31-36	106 (39%)

Most of the respondents (39%) were between the ages of 31-36 years old.

Table 4.10 reports on the home language of the respondents in the sample.

Table 4.10
Frequency distribution: Home language of respondents (Phase 3 - n=270)

Home Language	Number of Respondents (% Total)
English	160 (59.3%)
Xhosa	9 (3.3%)
Afrikaans	27 (10%)
Venda	2 (.7%)
Zulu	18 (7%)
Ndebele	2 (.7%)
South Sotho	11 (4%)
North Sotho	12 (4.4%)
Tsonga	9 (3.3%)
Tswana	17 (6.2%)
Swazi	3 (1.1%)
Other	0 (0%)

It is evident that English is the home language of most of the respondents (59.3%) in the current sample.

Table 4.11 reflects the highest qualification obtained by the respondents in the current sample:

Table 4.11
Frequency distribution: Highest qualification of respondents (Phase 3 – n=270)

Highest Qualification Obtained	Number of Respondents (% Total)
Grade 12 or equivalent	35 (13%)
Post High School Certificate	44 (16%)
Diploma	97 (36%)
Bachelor's Degree	69 (26%)
Honours Degree	20 (7%)
Master's Degree	5 (2%)
PHD	0 (0%)

Most of the respondents (36%) held a diploma, followed by 26 per cent of the respondents who held a bachelor's degree.

Table 4.12 reflects the distribution of the occupational levels of the current sample within the various organisations.

Table 4.12
Frequency distribution: Occupational level in current position of respondents (Phase 3)

Occupational Level	Number of Respondents (% Total)
Top Management	2 (0.7%)
Senior Management	13 (5%)
Middle Management	29 (11%)
Junior Management	19 (7%)
Supervisor/Team Leader	20 (7%)
Employee (Non-supervisor/Non-managerial)	144 (53.3%)
Intern	43 (16%)

Most of the respondents (53.3%) in the current samplefound themselves at the non-supervisory/non-managerial level, followed by 16 per cent of the respondents at intern level.

4.14. PROCEDURE FOR HANDLING MISSING VALUES

In social research, missing data is usually a challenge because many research projects make use of survey data. In this particular research study, admittedly, the survey was lengthy and, in some instances, missing values were reported. Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Gudergan (2017) indicate that missing data occurs when a respondent either purposefully or inadvertently fails to answer one or more questions. Hair et al. (2017) further suggest that if the amount of missing data on the questionnaire exceeds 15 per cent, the item is typically removed from the data file. This practice was applied to the procedure for handling missing data and, where possible, missing value replacement was done using the "k-nearest neighbours" (KNN) missing value imputation.

4.15. DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

An overview of the instruments and the procedure to collect data for Phase 2 was provided in Chapter 3. The measuring instruments used to measure the constructs were also discussed. The following section presents the data analysis techniques used to analyse the data for Phase 3.

The research questions that a study aims to answer often determine the type of data techniques that would be employed. The research questions are guided by the propositions and the data analysis techniques concentrate on relationships, significance of group membership, and structure (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

The various data analysis techniques are presented below, and a brief discussion is provided on the techniques used to test the propositions. The techniques included reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), Pearson product-moment correlation, multiple regression analysis, and structural equation modelling (SEM).

4.15.1. Reliability analysis

Prior to any of the propositions being tested it is important that the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments are determined. The known psychometric properties of the instruments were discussed in Chapter 3. During Phase 3, the instruments were also subjected to a series of empirical analyses, the results of which are reported in Chapter 5. The analysis included item analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM).

4.15.1.1. Internal consistency reliability

Cronbach alpha is the traditional criterion for internal consistency. Cronbach alpha provides an estimate of the reliability based on the inter-correlations of the observed indicator variables (Hair et al., 2017). According to Riou, Guyon and Falissard (2016), internal consistency refers to the intercorrelations among indicator variables, reflecting the reliability of the measurement. It is measured by scree plots and Cronbach alpha and is also close to the unidimensionality property. For a Cronbach alpha to be deemed acceptable, the value must be greater than .70 (Riou et al., 2016). It is reported that Cronbach alpha underestimates the internal consistency reliability because it is sensitive to the number of items in a scale. Because of this limitation, it is believed that it is more appropriate to use composite reliability to measure internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2017).

The rule of thumb offered by George and Mallery (2003) when evaluating Cronbach alpha is presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13
Cronbach alpha rule of thumb

Cronbach alpha value	Rule of thumb
Greater than (>) .9	Excellent
Greater than (>) .8	Good
Greater than (>) .7	Acceptable
Greater than (>) .6	Questionable
Greater than (>) .5	Poor
Less than (<) .5	Unacceptable

4.15.1.2. Composite reliability

The composite reliability is interpreted in the same manner as Cronbach alpha. Composite reliability varies between 0 and 1 and the higher the score, the higher the reliability. Composite reliability values of .60 and .70 are deemed acceptable in exploratory research. Values between .70 and .90 are deemed satisfactory. Values above .90, and specifically above .95, are not desirable as they indicate that all the indicator variables are measuring the same phenomenon and therefore it would not be a valid measure for measuring the construct. Finally, all values below .60 would be an indication of a lack of internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2017).

4.15.2. Average variance extracted (AVE)

Convergent validity is measured by the average variance extracted (AVE) of every construct in the outer loadings of a measurement model. A value greater than .50 indicates that the construct explains more than half of the variance of its indicators. Further to this, values greater than .70 are recommended for the outer loading of the construct on each indicator (Riou et al., 2016). The outer which is also referred to as the measurement model and inner model also referred to as structural model explanation will follow later in the chapter. Throughout the thesis reference will be made to measurement and structural models.

4.15.3. Discriminant validity

The aim of discriminant validity is to determine whether the constructs that are not related in the model are truly distinct. This is usually measured by cross loadings and the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which is when the square root of the average variance extracted of the construct exceeds its correlation with any other construct. The cross loading is the extent to which an indicator's outer loading on the linked construct is higher than its loadings on the other constructs (Riou et al., 2016).

4.15.4. Determining the degree of relationship between the variables

The study commenced with eight preliminary propositions and after reviewing the propositions, as discussed in Chapter 4, their number increased to eleven. The revised eleven proposed propositions identified suggest statistical analysis techniques appropriate to determine the relationships among the measured constructs.

According to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006), the most appropriate data analysis techniques to evaluate the eleven propositions are bivariate *r* and multiple R, which will be discussed below.

4.15.4.1. Correlation (bivariate r)

The standard measure used to determine the strength of a relationship between variables is the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (PPMCC). According to Field (2005), the values can

range from -1 to +1, which is explained as -1 being an indication that as one variable changes the other variable changes in the opposite direction by the same amount. Where the finding is 0, this would be interpreted as when one variable changes the other variable does not change at all. In the case of +1, this would be an indication that as one variable changes the other variable would change by the same amount and in the same direction.

According to Roux (2014), even though a correlation may be statistically significant, it is still important for it to be evaluated in the context of its associated strength and value to the research. In order for the reader to fully comprehend the significance of research findings it is almost always needed to provide index of size or strength of relationship (Hemphill, 2003). One of the most widely used guidelines in behavioural science is that of Cohen (1988) where correlation coefficients of .10 are “small”, those of .30 are deemed “medium”, and those of .50 are “large”. This guideline will be applied throughout the study when reflecting on the strength of a relationship.

The section to follow expands on structural equation modelling (SEM), including the evaluation of structural models, evaluating structural equation models through path least square (PLS) modelling, motivation for using PLS and the evaluation of the PLS model (both the structural and measurement models).

4.16. STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is the method that describes and analyses the structured relationship between a set of variables. These variables may be represented by unobservable concepts, such as depression, that is inferred from other directly observable variables, which can be a named indicator or manifest variable (Riou et al., 2016). Williams, Vandenberg and Edwards (2009) define structural equation modelling as a multivariate approach used to test and estimate complex causal relationships among variables simultaneously. This is possible through SEM whether the relationships are hypothetical or not directly observable. It is one of the measurement models that enable more precise evaluation of indicator variable loadings, as well as reliability and validity (Astrachan, Patel, & Wanzenried, 2014).

Initially, researchers were reliant on univariate and bivariate analysis to gain understanding of data and relationships. More sophisticated multivariate methods were increasingly required to understand the complex relationships associated with social research. Multivariate analysis is where statistical methods are employed simultaneously to analyse multiple variables. Measurements are often obtained from surveys and observations for the collection of primary data, which was the case for this study. Social scientists refer to the statistical methods they often employ as first-generation techniques. However, in the past 20 years many researchers have turned to second-generation methods, also referred to as structural equation modelling (SEM), which enables researches to incorporate unobservable variables measured indirectly by indicator variables (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4.14 shows the major types of statistical method associated with multivariate analysis differentiating between first- and second-generation techniques.

Table 4.14
First and second-generation techniques

	Primary Exploratory	**Primary Confirmatory**
First-generation techniques	Cluster analysis Exploratory factor analysis Multidimensional scaling	Analysis of variance Logic regression Multiple regression Confirmatory factor analysis
Second-generation technique	Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM)	Covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM)

Note. Adapted from "A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)", by Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M., 2014, Thousand Oaks: Sage.

According to Riou et al. (2016), one of the primary outcomes of both CB-SEM and PLS-SEM is path parameters that quantify and examine the hypothesised relationships between variables.

4.16.1. Evaluation of the structural model

After the validity of the measurement model has been confirmed, the examination of the structural model results enables us to observe the predictive capabilities of the proposed model. The primary criteria for doing this is to firstly determine the coefficients of the endogenous variables and secondly to determine their predictive relevance. The coefficients of determination (R^2 values) of the endogenous (dependent variable) constructs are the main measure of the model. Predictive relevance assesses how well the path model predicts the originally observed data (Astrachan et al., 2014). The conceptual structural model consists of both an outer (measurement) and inner (structural) model. Explanations on how to evaluate the measurement and structural model will be discussed later in the chapter.

4.16.1.1. Evaluating the structural component of structural equation modelling (SEM) through partial least squares modelling (PLS)

In accordance with Table 4.15, the second-generation techniques, also known as structural equation modelling (SEM), comprise two types of SEM. The primary use for CB-SEM is to either confirm or reject theories. The other type of SEM is referred to as partial least squares (PLS-SEM), also known as PLS path modelling. PLS–SEM is primarily used for the development of theories within exploratory research (Hair, 2017).

Whilst CB-SEM and PLS-SEM use similar graphic diagrams, there are several differences between the two methods. Basically, the term "construct" utilised in PLS-SEM is to model the unobservable concepts that do not rely on the usual psychometric perspective, which is the premise that CB-SEM is built on. The usual psychometric perspective refers to the validity and reliability of a construct. PLS

SEM is equipped with its own statistical properties and algorithm estimations. This method would suit the requirements of researchers who are conducting preliminary studies with the intention of developing a theoretical model and identifying salient dependencies between concepts and working with smaller samples (Riou et al., 2016).

Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009) indicate that PLS models are defined by two linear equations, the structural model and the measurement model. The structural model specifies the relationships between unobserved and latent variables, whereas the structural model specifies the relationships between the latent variables and their observed variables.

PLS provides an estimation of the parameters for the links between measures and constructs, such as outer loadings, as well as the links between different constructs, such as path coefficients. A PLS model is usually analysed and interpreted sequentially in two stages: (1) the assessment of the reliability and validity of the measurement model followed by (2) the assessment of the structural model. This sequential evaluation ensures that the researcher possesses reliable and valid measures of constructs before attempting to draw conclusions about the nature of the construct relationships (Hulland, 1999).

4.17. MOTIVATION FOR USING PLS MODELLING

According to Hulland (1999), advances in casual modelling have enabled researchers to simultaneously examine theory and measures. These techniques are deemed superior to traditional techniques such as factor analysis, multidimensional scaling, etc., in that they allow for the explicit inclusion of measurement error and the ability to include abstract unobservable constructs as well.

When applying PLS in a management context, there are three methodical considerations that also benefit researchers, namely: (1) the assessment of the reliability and validity of measures; (2) determining the appropriateness of the nature of the relationships between measures and constructs, and (3) path coefficients and the model adequacy can be determined, and a final model from the set of alternatives may be selected (Hulland, 1999, p. 198).

For early-stage theory development and testing, PLS-SEM is deemed a more suitable approach, according to Hair et al. (2014), because it allows for the examination of constructs and the relationships in complex structural models. The appropriateness of the approach is based on the fact that the main purpose of PLS-SEM in theory development is to establish relationships, determine the directions and strength of the relationships and identify the observable measurements (Astrachan et al., 2014).

4.17.1. Evaluation of PLS path model

According to Astrachan et al. (2014), it is important that the researcher define the exact number of independent (endogenous) and dependent (exogenous) variables. The method requires the identification of the entire theoretical model prior to the data analysis phase. In addition to defining the exact number of the variables used in the theoretical model, the researcher also needs to identify the relationships between the latent variables, the type of model (formative or reflective), and determine the number of indicator variables needed to ensure the validity and reliability of all the constructs. Only once a model has been accurately specified can all the parameters be estimated.

As mentioned above, there are two measurement models in evaluating PLS SEM, namely mode A, also known as the reflective model, and mode B, known as the formative model. Table 4.15 provides an indication of which characteristics each of these measurement models relies on.

Table 4.15
Model measurement characteristics

Mode A (Reflective model)	Mode B (Formative model) – at analysis phase
Internal consistency	Redundancy analysis
Convergent validity	Detection of collinearity issues
Discriminant validity	Assessment of the relevance of the formative indicators

Note. Adapted from “An introduction to the partial least squares approach to structural equation modelling: a method for exploratory psychiatric research”, by J. Riou, H. Guyon, & B. Falissard, 2016, *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research, 25*(3), p. 224.

The characteristics for model A (internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity) were explained at the beginning of the chapter. A brief description for model B characteristics follows.

4.17.1.1. Redundancy analysis

For the redundancy analysis the anticipated redundant items must be included before data collection. Redundancy analysis essentially provides an estimation of the capacity of a formatively measured construct to predict an independent measure of the same unobserved concept. This can be achieved by using a single global item representing the same concept (Riou et al., 2016).

4.17.1.2. Detection of collinearity issues

For formative constructs in the case of multiple linear regressions, collinearity issues can hinder the interpretation, as the indicators are not meant to be highly correlated with each other. In this case variance inflation factor (VIF) values smaller than 5 are deemed acceptable (Riou et al., 2016).

CB-SEM is more appropriate when a substantially larger sample size is available. It may not be available in general and particularly at the early stages of theory development, which is the case for

the job embeddedness construct. The constraint of model fit for CB-SEM is that it is primarily used for established theory testing and confirmation (Astrachan et al., 2014).

4.17.1.3. Assessment of the formative indicators

Through the examination of the outer weights that represent each indicator's relative contribution to the construct, the relevance of formative indicators is determined. This assumes that there is no error term and its indicators explain 100 per cent of the construct. Bootstrapping is the technique that is traditionally used to test the significance of the outer weights. Indicators with insignificant outer weights are usually considered for deletion. The decision to delete is especially applied in cases where the absolute contribution to the construct is insignificant, which is measured by its outer loading, and where the theoretical importance is weak (Riou et al., 2016).

The evaluation of Mode B measurement models is different from Mode A since the underlying hypothesis of a formative measure is that there is no error and the indicators represent all the construct's distinct causes. The focus is therefore on ensuring that the indicators essentially account for all if not most of the construct's causes. To achieve this, the researcher must ensure that an exhaustive literature review has been conducted on the subject prior to the creation of questionnaires (Riou et al., 2016).

The Model A (reflective) measurement model was applied in the current study as no questionnaire was created for the constructs. Existing questionnaires were utilised to form the composite questionnaire for measuring the constructs for this study. Astrachan et al. (2014) caution that if a model lacks a sound theoretical model and where the direction of the relationships of the variables are uncertain, CB-SEM should not be the preferred method. Since job embeddedness is a fairly new construct and requires examination, the researcher took the caveat of Astrachan and his colleagues (2014) to heart and decided to concentrate on PLS-SEM, although CB-SEM goodness-of-fit analyses were also employed.

Figure 4.4 indicates an example of a PLS path model, including both the inner (structural) and outer (measurement) model. In addition, an example of the formative model and reflective model is also presented in Figure 4.4.

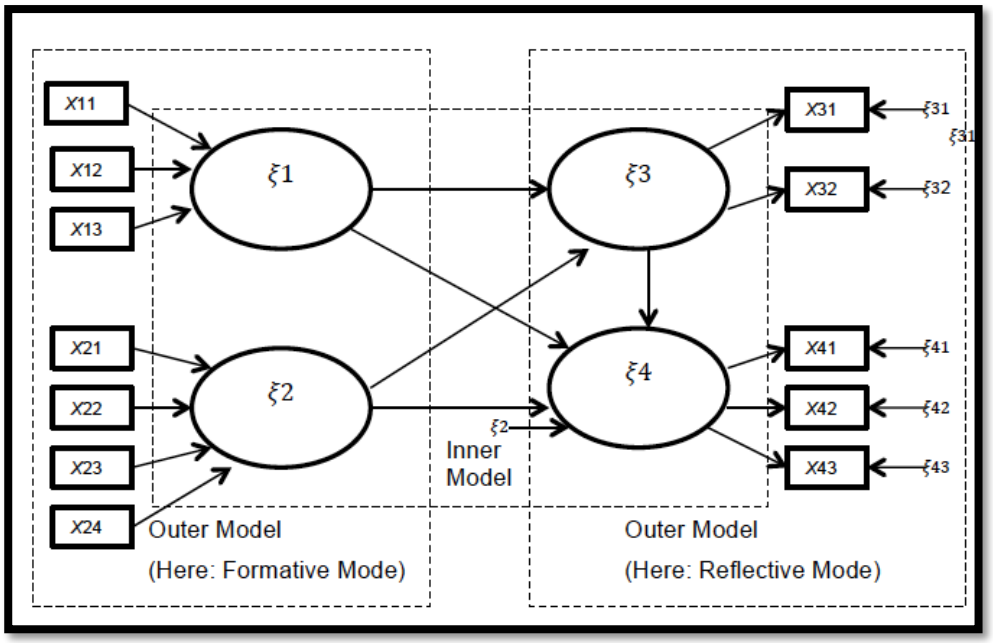


Figure 4.4: Example of a PLS Path Model

Adapted from "The use of partial least squares in international marketing." by J. Henseler, C.M. Ringle, & R. R. Sinkovics, 2009, *Advances in International Marketing*, 20,p, 223.

4.18. ASSESSING THE PLS MEASUREMENT MODEL

According to Hair et al. (2014), the initial step in evaluating a PLS-SEM model is to assess and validate the measurement model. To achieve this, the relationships between the constructs and their indicators must be tested. According to Hair et al. (2012), assessing the measurement model includes determining indicator reliability (squared standardised outer loadings), internal consistency reliability (composite reliability), convergent validity (average variance extracted (AVE), and discriminant validity (Fornell-Larcker criterion, cross-loading).

4.19. ASSESSING THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

The primary focus of PLS-SEM is on the exploration and quantification of the relationships hypothesised within the structural model. The key estimates are the path coefficients and the size effect. Path coefficients are interpreted in the same way that standardised regression coefficients are interpreted. Path coefficients have standardised values from 1 to +1 and directly quantify the hypothesised relationships within the structural model. Through bootstrapping the corresponding p-values, confidence intervals can be obtained (Astrachan et al., 2014).

Simply put by Henseler et al. (2009), formally PLS path models are defined by two sets of linear equations: the structural model and the measurement model. The relationships between unobserved or latent variables are specified by the structural model. On the other hand, the measurement model specifies the relationships between a latent variable and its observed or manifest variables.

4.20. SUMMARY

In this chapter, an overview of the methodologies employed for this study was presented. The overview covered a qualitative phase, which served the purpose of reviewing the preliminary model, the preliminary propositions, and the comprehensiveness of the measuring instruments, as well as a quantitative phase, which served the purpose of a pilot administration of the self-compiled questionnaire and a subsequent analysis of the obtained results.

The techniques used for data analysis discussed included reliability and exploratory factor analysis. A brief overview of structural equation modelling was offered, and the two different approaches, SEM-CB and SEM-PLS, were discussed. An evaluation of structural equation modelling was provided, including the support for the use of partial least squares (PLS) path modelling. PLS was employed to evaluate the theoretical model depicting the relationships between the constructs that were examined in this study.

In the next chapter, Chapter 5, the results of the study will be presented, and emphasis will be placed on evaluating the factor structure of each of the measured constructs and statistically describing the correlations between them. Furthermore, the conceptual model of relationships between the constructs, combining both variance-based and co-variance-based approaches to structural modelling in addition to statistically predicting intention to quit, will be explored and supported statistically.

CHAPTER 5
RESULTS FROM THE QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

The findings of the quantitative phase, also referred to as Phase 3, are presented in this chapter.

The first section deals with the item analyses (including reliability coefficients) of the various measurement instruments and their intercorrelations. In the rest of the chapter, three different models are sequentially presented and evaluated by means of the goodness-of-fit statistics (confirmatory factor analysis or CFA) of the associated measurement models; exploratory factor analysis appropriate to the nature of the statistical question asked, and PLS-based evaluations of the measurement and structural models.

The three different models will therefore consecutively be evaluated by means of the same series of statistical analyses.

5.1. EVALUATION OF MODEL 1

The following section presents the analyses conducted for the evaluation of Model 1. As mentioned above, the analyses will deal with the constructs representing Model 1, including the subconstructs of transformational leadership, job resources, job embeddedness, supportive organisational climate, satisfaction with pay and intention to quit.

5.2. ITEM ANALYSIS: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP (TL)

Table 5.1 presents the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence and individualised consideration) associated with the original factor structure of the transformational leadership construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for inspirational leadership dimension are presented below in Table 5.1.

The eight items measuring the inspirational leadership subscale have an overall Cronbach alpha of .90. According to George and Mallery (2003), reliability coefficients greater than .9 can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would significantly increase the overall reliability if they were deleted, as they are all positive. The average inter-item correlation is .54, which according to Den Hartog et al. (1997) should be >.30. The mean is 31 and the standard deviation 7.38.

Table 5.1
Item analysis for inspirational leadership (n=270)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q9	27.05	42.08	6.49	.74	.89
Q13	27.28	42.36	6.51	.68	.89
Q14	27.48	41.11	6.41	.69	.89
Q15	27.04	43.56	6.60	.69	.89
Q18	27.33	40.88	6.39	.70	.89
Q21	27.17	44.16	6.65	.57	.90
Q22	27.37	41.42	6.44	.74	.89
Q27	27.13	42.31	6.50	.73	.89

The inference could therefore be made that the subscale of Inspirational Leadership is internally highly reliable.

The results of the item analysis for the intellectual stimulation dimension are reported below in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2
Item analysis for intellectual stimulation (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q10	11.18	9.81	3.13	.55	.83
Q12	11.03	9.08	3.01	.67	.78
Q24	11.13	8.21	2.87	.73	.75
Q26	11.15	8.93	2.99	.68	.77

The four items measuring the intellectual stimulation subscale have an overall Cronbach alpha of .83. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .55, which, according to Den Hartog et al. (1997), should be >.30. The mean is 14.82 and the standard deviation is 3.8. The inference could be made that the subscale of Intellectual Stimulation is internally highly reliable.

The results of the item analysis of the idealised influence dimension are reported in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3
Item analysis for idealised influence (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviating if Deleted	Item Inter-correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q11	7.57	4.21	2.05	.45	.56
Q16	7.21	3.96	1.99	.50	.49
Q20	7.25	4.28	2.07	.42	.60

The three-item scale measuring the idealised influence subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .65. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as questionable. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .38, which is greater than .30 as per the criteria for inter-item correlation (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 11.01 with a standard deviation of 2.82. This finding places a question mark over the further utilisation of the subscale and further evidence should therefore be sought to confirm or disconfirm the finding.

The results of the item analysis for the individualised consideration dimension are reported below in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4
Item analysis for individualised consideration) (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q17	10.90	11.33	3.37	.63	.77
Q19	10.44	11.64	3.41	.61	.78
Q23	10.81	11.35	3.37	.58	.80
Q25	10.67	10.81	3.29	.74	.73

The four-item scale measuring the individualised consideration subscale has an overall reliability coefficient of .82. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .54, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 14.86 with a standard deviation of 4.28. The internal reliability of this subscale is therefore satisfactory.

The item analysis of the subscales of the transformational leadership construct is presented in Table 5.5:

Table 5.5
Item analysis for transformational leadership subscales (n=270)

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item Inter-correlation	Alpha
Inspirational leadership	31.00	7.38	.54	.90
Intellectual stimulation	14.82	3.80	.55	.83
Idealised influence	11.01	2.82	.38	.65
Individualised consideration	14.86	4.28	.54	.82

It is clear from the above table that the four subscales of the transformational leadership measure have good levels of reliability and that the overarching Cronbach alpha of .92 could be described as excellent. The inter-item correlation is also deemed acceptable. This finding indicates that, despite

the lower internal consistency of the Idealised Influence subscale, the overarching transformational leadership scale has a high level of internal reliability.

5.3. ITEM ANALYSIS: JOB RESOURCES (JR)

The following tables report on the item analyses associated with the job resources construct. Emphasis will be placed in the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates. The sub-dimensions of job resources are growth opportunities, organisational support, social support, advancement and job insecurity.

The results associated with the item analysis of the growth opportunities dimension are reported in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6
Item analysis for opportunities for growth (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q29 (reversed)	30.99	59.68	7.73	.28	.89
Q30	29.12	51.02	7.14	.64	.84
Q31	29.16	49.70	7.05	.73	.83
Q32	28.94	49.64	7.05	.69	.83
Q33	28.72	48.91	6.99	.79	.82
Q34	28.64	51.96	7.21	.75	.83
Q35	28.52	53.17	7.29	.58	.85

The seven items measuring the opportunities for growth subscale have an overall Cronbach alpha of .86. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would substantially increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .49, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 34.00, with a standard deviation of 8.36. The inference could therefore be made that the scale has excellent internal reliability despite the borderline value of the inter-item correlation for Item Q29.

The results associated with the item analysis for the organisational support dimension are reported in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7
Item analysis for organisational support (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q36	63.05	180.61	13.44	.61	.93
Q37	63.24	181.31	13.47	.57	.93
Q41	62.69	177.85	13.33	.73	.92
Q42	62.51	179.44	13.40	.75	.92
Q43	63.09	170.11.	13.04	.81	.92
Q44	63.03	185.35	13.61	.57	.93
Q45	62.90	184.12	13.57	.57	.93
Q46	63.23	176.75	13.29	.68	.93
Q47	63.11	180.00	13.42	.69	.93
Q48	63.38	176.36	13.28	.72	.92
Q49	63.56	171.68	13.10	.74	.92
Q50	62.86	175.87	13.26	.74	.92
Q51	63.30	175.37	13.24	.74	.92

The 13 items measuring the organisational support subscale have an overall Cronbach alpha of .93. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would substantially increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .52, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 34.32, with a standard deviation of 14.44. The inference could be made that the subscale of Organisational Support is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for the social support dimension are reported in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8
Item analysis for social support (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q38	23.84	17.21	4.15	.70	.86
Q39	23.62	17.16	4.14	.80	.83
Q40	23.40	18.82	4.34	.75	.85
Q52	23.39	19.90	4.46	.65	.87
Q53	23.39	20.08	4.48	.70	.86

The five items measuring the social support subscale have an overall Cronbach alpha of .88. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would substantially increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .63, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

The mean is 29.41, with a standard deviation of 5.32. The inference could be made that the subscale of Social Support is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for the advancement dimension are reported in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9
Item analysis for advancement (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q54	21.23	46.30	6.80	.72	.82
Q55	21.59	44.73	6.69	.75	.82
Q56	21.60	45.22	6.72	.78	.81
Q57	20.96	44.89	6.70	.77	.81
Q58	19.77	57.11	7.56	.31	.89
Q59	20.59	49.72	7.05	.58	.85

The six items measuring advancement have an overall Cronbach alpha of 0.86. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would substantially increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .53, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997).The mean is 25.14, with a standard deviation of 8.21. The inference could be made that the subscale of Advancement is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for the job insecurity dimension are reported in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10
Item analysis for job insecurity (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q60	9.01	10.39	3.22	.81	.84
Q61	9.05	9.59	3.10	.87	.79
Q62	9.43	11.39	3.38	.71	.92

The three items measuring the job insecurity subscale have an overall Cronbach alpha of .90. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would substantially increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .76, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 13.74, with a standard deviation of 4.73. The inference could be made that the subscale of Job Insecurity is internally highly reliable.

The item analysis for the job resources construct is presented in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11
Item analysis for job resources scale (n=270)

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha
Growth opportunities	34.00	8.36	.49	.86
Organisational support	34.32	14.44	.52	.93
Social support	29.41	5.32	.63	.88
Job advancement	25.14	8.21	.53	.86
Job insecurity	13.24	4.73	.76	.90

It is clear from the above table that the deletion of the job security subscale would increase the overarching alpha coefficient, but the current overarching Cronbach alpha of .75 is already acceptable and there is no need to tamper with the scale. The inference could be made that the total Job Resources scale is internally highly reliable.

5.4. ITEM ANALYSIS: JOB EMBEDDEDNESS (JE)

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with the JE construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates. The dimensions measured for job embeddedness are organisational fit, organisational sacrifice and organisational links. The item analysis of the organisational links subscale is not reported here as it was discovered to be a formative scale (see discussion below).

The results associated with the item analysis for the organisational fit dimension are reported in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12
Item analysis for organisational fit (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q64	18.99	16.30	4.04	.68	.85
Q65	18.66	16.72	4.09	.75	.84
Q66	19.16	16.09	4.01	.69	.85
Q67	18.74	17.30	4.16	.55	.88
Q68	18.65	17.33	4.16	.72	.85
Q69	18.97	16.65	4.08	.72	.85

The six-item scale measuring the organisational fit subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .87. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .55, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 22.63,

with a standard deviation of 4.86. The inference could be made that the subscale of Organisational Fit is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for the organisational sacrifice dimension are reported in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13
Item analysis for organisational sacrifice (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q70	24.90	44.51	6.67	.60	.87
Q71	25.66	41.70	6.46	.69	.87
Q72	24.90	46.23	6.60	.55	.88
Q73	25.31	45.76	6.76	.45	.89
Q74	25.41	43.27	6.58	.61	.87
Q75	25.59	42.49	6.52	.71	.87
Q76	25.66	42.23	6.50	.68	.87
Q77	25.74	42.18	6.49	.68	.87
Q78	25.14	42.12	6.49	.74	.86

The nine-item scale measuring the organisational sacrifice subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .88. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .47, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 28.54, with a standard deviation of 7.37. The inference could be made that the subscale of Organisational Sacrifice is internally highly reliable.

The item analysis of the job embeddedness construct is presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14
Item analysis for the job embeddedness construct (n=270)

Variable	Mean if deleted	Variance if deleted	Standard Deviation if deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if deleted
Organisational fit	3.19	0.91	0.96	.56	0
Organisational sacrifice	3.79	0.89	0.94	.56	0
Organisational links	6.94	2.25	1.5	-.08	.83

From the above table, one can observe that the inter-item correlation of organisational links appears to be problematic as it has a negative score of -0.08. The Cronbach alpha is .49 and according to the rule of thumb of George and Mallery (2003), this is deemed unacceptable. It is apparent that deletion of the organisational links subscale would increase the Cronbach alpha. The average inter-item correlation is .27, which is not >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al.,

1997). Since the item organisational links does not meet the criteria, it was therefore considered to remove it.

This means that organisational links seems to be measuring something else. The variance is also much greater than that of the other two subscales, which is organisational fit and organisational sacrifice. An analysis of the items confirms that this is a good example of a formative model. As discussed in Chapter 4, the formative indicators are determined through the examination of the outer weights that represent each indicator's relative contribution to the construct and bootstrapping is traditionally used to test the outer weights (Riou et al., 2016). According to Hair et al. (2012), the assessment of the measurement model weights is the primary statistic for the formative indicators. It is for this reason that no reliability analysis on organisational links was presented above. On the other hand, the assessment of the reflective measurement models is determined by reliability indicators (squared standard outer loadings), internal consistency reliability (also referred to as the composite reliability), convergent validity (AVE), and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2012). According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the reflective measurement model is rooted in the classical test theory and psychometrics. The objective of this study was to test theory and therefore the reflective measurement model was applied.

According to Hullard (1999), it is common to find measurement items in an estimated model with low loadings below the .7 threshold, especially when items or item scales are newly developed, as in the case of job embeddedness. They offer three reasons for lower loading results: (1) the item being poorly worded, (2) an indication of it being an inappropriate item, and (3) inappropriate transfer of an item from one context to another. In this case organisational links is a good example of a low loading item subscale, which is characteristic ofa formative or model B measurement as discussed in Chapter 4. As reported in Becker et al. (2012), if the construct in a PLS-SEM is reflective, the general concept is manifested by a number of specific dimensions, themselves being latent (unobserved). On the other hand, if the construct is formative, it is a combination of a number of specific latent dimensions into a general concept, which may be the case with organisational links.

According to the statistical data, organisational links does not appear to be measuring job embeddedness and is not correlating well with the two other subscales of job embeddedness. Organisational links was removed to examine the impact of removing this subscale on the Cronbach alpha. The results are presented in Table 5.15 below.

Table 5.15
Item analysis for job embeddedness without organisational links subscale (n=270)

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha
Organisational fit	22.63	4.86	.55	.86
Organisational sacrifice	28.54	7.37	.47	.88

With the removal of organisational links, we can observe that there is an improvement in the Cronbach alpha from 0.49 (with organisational links) to 0.83 (without organisational links). There is also an improvement in the inter-item correlation to .70, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

5.5. ITEM ANALYSIS: SUPPORTIVE ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE (SOC)

The following tables report on the item analyses associated with the supportive organisational climate construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates. The dimensions measured for supportive organisational climate construct included managerial competence, employee commitment, co-operation and co-ordination, and consistency and customer orientation.

The results associated with the supportive organisational climate item analysis for managerial competence dimension are reported in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16
Item analysis for managerial competence (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q86	15.08	27.90	5.28	.74	.90
Q87	15.24	27.78	5.27	.74	.90
Q88	15.09	27.66	5.26	.77	.90
Q89	15.29	26.97	5.19	.77	.90
Q90	15.29	27.45	5.24	.79	.90
Q91	15.01	27.19	5.21	.76	.90
Q92	14.99	28.91	5.38	.60	.92

The seven-item scale measuring the managerial competence subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .91. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .61, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997).The mean is 17.66, with a standard deviation of 6.11. The inference could be made that the subscale of Managerial Competence is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for employee commitment dimension are reported below in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17
Item analysis for employee commitment (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q93	13.70	18.81	4.34	.67	.86
Q94	13.59	17.70	4.21	.83	.83
Q95	13.09	18.54	4.31	.66	.86
Q96	13.41	18.30	4.28	.72	.85
Q97	13.16	20.03	4.59	.46	.89
Q98	13.72	18.38	4.29	.76	.84

The six-item scale measuring the employee commitment subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .88. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .55, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997).The mean is 16.33, with a standard deviation of 6.14.The inference could be made that the subscale of Employee Commitment is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for the co-operation and co-ordination dimension are presented in Table 5.18 below.

Table 5.18
Item analysis for co-operation and co-ordination (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q99	7.59	7.55	2.75	.75	.82
Q100	7.66	7.03	2.65	.80	.80
Q101	7.25	7.31	2.70	.68	.85
Q102	7.62	7.83	2.80	.66	.86

The four-item scale measuring the co-operation and co-ordination subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .87. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .63, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 10.04, with a standard deviation of 3.56. The inference could be made that the subscale of Co-operation and Co-ordination is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for consistency and customer orientation dimension are reported in Table 5.19 below.

Table 5.19
Item analysis for consistency and customer orientation (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q103	6.27	7.78	2.79	.78	.91
Q104	6.17	7.75	2.78	.82	.90
Q105	6.19	7.31	2.70	.89	.87
Q106	6.00	7.54	2.75	.78	.91

The four-item scale measuring consistency and customer orientation has an overall Cronbach alpha of .92. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .75, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997).The mean is 8.21, with a standard deviation of 3.63.The inference could be made that the subscale of Consistency and Customer Orientation is internally highly reliable.

The item analysis of the organisational climate construct is presented in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20
Item analysis for organisational climate scale (n=270)

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item correlation	inter-Alpha
Managerial competence	17.66	6.11	.61	.91
Employee commitment	16.33	6.14	.55	.88
Co-operation & co-ordination	10.04	3.56	.63	.87
Consistency & customer orientation	8.21	3.63	.75	.92

The overarching Cronbach alpha of .89 is deemed good and none of the subscales, if deleted, would improve the alpha coefficient. The inter-item correlation of .68 is >.30, meeting the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). It is clear that the overarching Organisational Climate Scale has excellent psychometric properties.

5.6. ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SATISFACTION WITH PAY (SP) SCALE

The following tables report on the item analyses associated with the satisfaction with pay construct. Emphasis will be placed in the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates. The dimensions measured for satisfaction with pay included levels of remuneration, satisfaction with benefits, satisfaction with raises and satisfaction with pay administration.

The results associated with the item analysis of the satisfaction with the level of pay dimension are reported in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21
Item analysis for level of pay (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q108	7.96	10.60	3.26	.86	.94
Q112	7.99	10.04	3.17	.90	.93
Q117	7.93	10.47	3.24	.86	.94
Q121	8.02	10.35	3.22	.89	.93

The four-item scale measuring the level of pay subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .95. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .83, which is >.30, meeting the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 10.63, with a standard deviation of 4.26. The inference could be made that the subscale of Level of Pay is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis of the benefits dimension are reported in Table 5.22below.

Table 5.22
Item analysis for satisfaction with benefits (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q109	7.93	10.06	3.17	.84	.91
Q113	7.97	9.78	3.13	.82	.92
Q118	7.75	9.82	3.13	.85	.91
Q122	7.90	9.85	3.14	.85	.91

The four-item scale measuring satisfaction with benefits subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .93. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .78, which is >.30, deemed acceptable as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 10.51, with a standard deviation of 4.15.The inference could be made that the subscale of Satisfaction with Benefits is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis for satisfaction with raises dimension are reported below.

Table 5.23
Item analysis for satisfaction with raises (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q110	8.48	7.21	2.69	.69	.79
Q111	8.33	8.67	2.94	.66	.81
Q114	8.39	7.88	2.81	.63	.82
Q123	8.49	7.59	2.76	.73	.77

The four-item scale measuring the raises subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .84. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .58, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 11.22, with a standard deviation of 3.64. The inference could be made that the subscale of Satisfaction with Raises is internally highly reliable.

The results associated with the item analysis of the satisfaction with the structure and administration of pay dimension are reported below.

Table 5.24
Item analysis for structure/administration of pay (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q115	14.89	15.46	3.93	.74	.84
Q116	14.86	15.62	3.95	.70	.85
Q119	14.67	17.84	4.22	.52	.87
Q120	14.87	14.89	3.86	.80	.83
Q124	15.11	15.47	3.93	.72	.84
Q125	144.51	16.23	4.03	.58	.87

The six-item scale measuring the structure/administration of pay subscale has an overall Cronbach alpha of .87. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .54, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997).The mean is 17.78, with a standard deviation of 4.73.The inference could be made that the subscale of Structure/Administration of Pay is internally highly reliable.

The item analysis of the satisfaction with pay scale is presented in Table 5.25.

Table 5.25
Summary of item analysis for satisfaction with pay (n=270)

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item correlation	inter-Alpha
Level	10.63	4.26	.83	.95
Benefits	10.51	4.15	.78	.93
Raises	11.22	3.64	.58	.84
Structure/Admin	17.78	4.73	.54	.87

The overarching satisfaction with pay construct has a Cronbach alpha of .90, which is deemed excellent, with an inter-item correlation of 0.70, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The overarching Satisfaction with Pay Scale clearly has very good psychometric properties.

5.7. ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE INTENTION TO QUIT (ITQ) SCALE

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with the intention to quit construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates. Intention to quit only has three items measuring it and the associated results are reported in Table 5.26 below.

Table 5.26
Item analysis for intention to quit (n=270)

Item	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Inter-Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Q127	5.47	6.79	2.61	.85	.80
Q128	5.95	7.96	2.82	.69	.94
Q129	5.6	6.47	2.54	.86	.80

The three-item scale measuring intention to quit has an overall Cronbach alpha of .90. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .77, which is >.30 as per the inter-item correlations criteria (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 8.37, with a standard deviation of 3.07. The Intention to Quit scale has very good psychometric properties.

An overview of the preceding section shows that all the subscales, with the exception of Idealised Influence, have excellent psychometric properties, and that the full scales all have excellent psychometric properties.

5.8. TWO-DIMENSIONAL SCATTERPLOTS

This section refers to the visual scatterplots of the correlations mapping the intersections of the various constructs, which are presented as appendices. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), a key requirement for using Pearson's r is that the relationship between two variables must be linear in

broad terms. Therefore, an approximate straight line is expected and not a curve when values of two variables are plotted on a scatter diagram.

The scatterplots are grouped and are presented as figures in the associated appendix. A summary discussion for each figure will be provided, starting with Appendix H. Most of the scatterplots in have positive slopes, indicating that as one variable increases, so will the other variable. The scatterplots that are negative are those that depict transformational leadership and organisational climate. The reason for this is that the scale for organisational climate is reversed and therefore the interpretation should be that when transformational leadership increases, organisational climate increases as well (interpreted in the reverse). The other scatterplot depicting a negative slope is transformational leadership and intention to quit. This is to be expected, since when transformational leadership increases intention to quit is expected to decrease.

In Appendix I the scatterplots for most of the correlations are positive slopes, indicating a positive relationship where as one variable increases the other would increase as well. The scatterplots indicating negative slopes are job resources and organisational climate, as well as job embeddedness and organisational climate (reversed scale) for the reasons previously stated. One other negative sloping scatterplot is job resources and intention to quit, which is expected, because as job resources increases, intention to quit would decrease.

In Appendix J we observe that three of the scatterplots are positive, as expected. For the reasons previously explained, scatterplots relating to organisational climate should be interpreted in the opposite direction, given the reverse scale. As for the scatterplot depicting a negative slope for job resources and intention to quit, this too is expected, since when job resources increase, intention to quit decreases. We observe again scatterplots depicting negative relationships with organisational climate. The other scatterplots depict positive slopes as expected, for example, as job embeddedness increases satisfaction with pay is expected to increase as well.

Lastly, in Appendix K we observe two negative slopes and one positive slope. The positive sloping scatterplot indicates that as satisfaction with pay increases, so does job embeddedness (construct without organisational links). In the case of the negative sloping scatterplot, it means that as satisfaction with pay increases, the intention to quit decreases.

A summary table with the Pearson values for the intercorrelations depicted in the scatterplots is presented in Table 5.27.

According to Pallant (2001), correlations above .50 are considered high and sufficient as indicators of a positive correlation. On the other hand, correlations around .2 are considered low (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Table 5.27 presents the summary of the Pearson values for the correlations within this study.

Table 5.27
Summary of Pearson intercorrelations

Construct	Value	TL	JR	JE	OC	SwP	ITQ	JE_2
Transformational Leadership	Pearson							
Job Resources	Pearson	0.47						
Job Embeddedness	Pearson	0.39	**0.70**					
Organisational Climate	Pearson	-0.18	-0.29	-0.32				
Satisfaction with Pay	Pearson	0.21	**0.51**	**0.57**	-0.23			
Intention to Quit	Pearson	-0.31	-0.44	**-0.51**	0.34	**-0.52**		
Job Embeddedness_2	Pearson	0.43	**0.75**	**0.96**	-0.33	**0.63**	**-0.54**	

Note: TL=Transformational leadership, JR= Job resources, JE = Job embeddedness, OC = Organisational climate, Sw- Satisfaction with pay, ITQ = Intention to quit, and JE_2 = Job embeddedness (without organisational links).

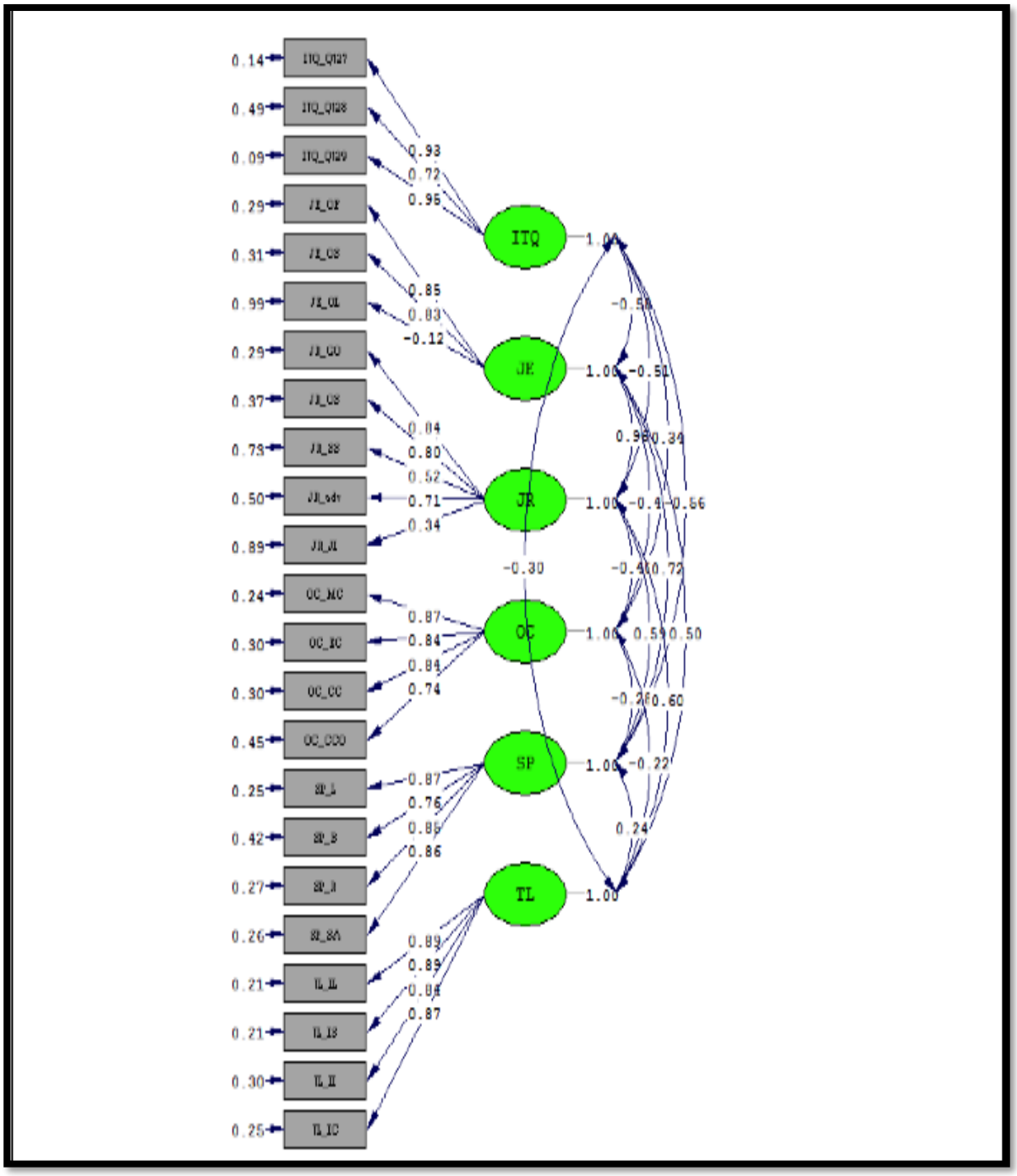
It should firstly be noted that all the correlations are statically significant (p<.01). It should further be remembered that Organisational Climate is keyed in the opposite direction, with the result that a negative correlation with another factor should be interpreted as a positive relationship. From the above summary table, we observe that job embeddedness and job embeddedness_2 (without organisational links) have the highest correlation (.96), which is considered an exceptionally strong correlation (Pallant, 2001), which indicates that the job embeddedness construct without the organisational links represents the overarching construct very well. Other strong correlations observed are between job embeddedness and job resources (.70), satisfaction with pay and job resources (.51), satisfaction with pay and job embeddedness (0.57), intention to quit and organisational climate, intention to quit and satisfaction with pay (-.52), job embeddedness_2 and job resources (.75), job embeddedness_2 and satisfaction with pay (.63) and job embeddedness_2 and intention to quit (-0.54). We observe that the correlation between transformational leadership and job resources (.47), job embeddedness and transformational leadership (.39), organisational climate and job embeddedness (-.32), intention to quit and transformational leadership (-.31), intention to quit and job resources (-.44), intention to quit and organisational climate (.34), job embeddedness_2 and transformational leadership (.43) and lastly job embeddedness_2 and organisational climate (-.33) are all considered moderate. Correlations below .20 are considered low, which is the case with organisational climate and transformational leadership (-.18), organisational climate and job resources (-.29), satisfaction with pay and transformational leadership (.21) and satisfaction with pay and organisational climate (-.23).

5.9. ASSESSMENT OF THE MEASUREMENT MODEL OF MODEL 1

According to Astrachan et al. (2014), SEM models empower researchers to evaluate complex models relating to the compatibility (fit) with all the relationships (covariances) in the data set, which is not as easily achievable with other statistical procedures. CB-SEM can assess whether the theoretical model is confirmed, and this is accomplished through calculating a range of goodness-of-fit statistics. The goodness of fit in simple terms indicates how well the model is supported by the data collected.

Model 1 consisted of six constructs with 23 indicators: intention to quit (ITQ) = 3 indicators; job embeddedness (JE) = 3 indicators (it therefore incorporates the links subscale); job resources (JR) = 5 indicators; organisational climate (OC) = 4 indicators; satisfaction with pay (SP) = 4 indicators, and transformational leadership (TL) = 4 indicators. Figure 5.1 below indicates the initial results of the goodness of fit assessment with the initial CB-SEM model with 23 indicators.

Figure 5.1: Goodness of fit: Initial CB-SEM model with 23 indicators



The results of the CFA of Model 1 revealed a lack of fit, indicating the degrees of freedom (DF) as = 215; with a normal theory weighted least square Chi-square of 762.20 (p =.00); a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .098; with a 90 per cent confidence interval of 0.91 to .10; a goodness-of-fit index (GFI) of 0.80 and the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) of 0.75.

The rule of thumb is that the RMSEA should be less than .05 for it to be indicative of a close fit. The RMSEA of .098, however, represents a mediocre fit and it is clear that the organisational links subscale was again problematic with a negative loading of -.12. Both the GFI and the AGFI must

exceed .90 in order to represent good fit. As can be observed, these two values are substantially lower than .90.

It was decided to re-examine the model in future iterations by removing organisational links to see whether there would be an improvement in the fit.

The goodness-of-fit of the data indicated that the data did not support the model. The decision to perform exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was considered and applied, as the primary purpose of EFA is to arrive at a granular conceptual understanding of a set of measured variables by assessing the number and nature of common factors required to account for the pattern of correlations among the measured variables (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999).

In the section below the EFA results are presented, including parallel analysis, eigenvalues, factor correlations and oblimin rotation.

5.10. EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA) OF MODEL 1

EFA derives its own factors from the data. Put in simpler terms, it identifies how many factors the data identifies as factors. Costello and Osborne (2005) indicate that in most statistical software packages the default setting is to retain all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and at the same time notes that there is a broad consensus that this is the least accurate method for the selection criteria in deciding the number of factors to be retained. They further postulate that parallel analysis and scree tests are the best choice for researchers.

When performing the scree test, the graph of eigenvalues is examined for the natural bend or break point where the curve flattens out. The number of datapoints above the “break” point is the number of factors that is retained (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Through parallel analysis the scree plot below in Figure 5.2 identifies five factors and not six as per the confirmatory factor analysis. These can be observed by the number of factors on the blue line above the point of intersection.

Figure 5.2: Factor analysis results dialog: Parallel analysis

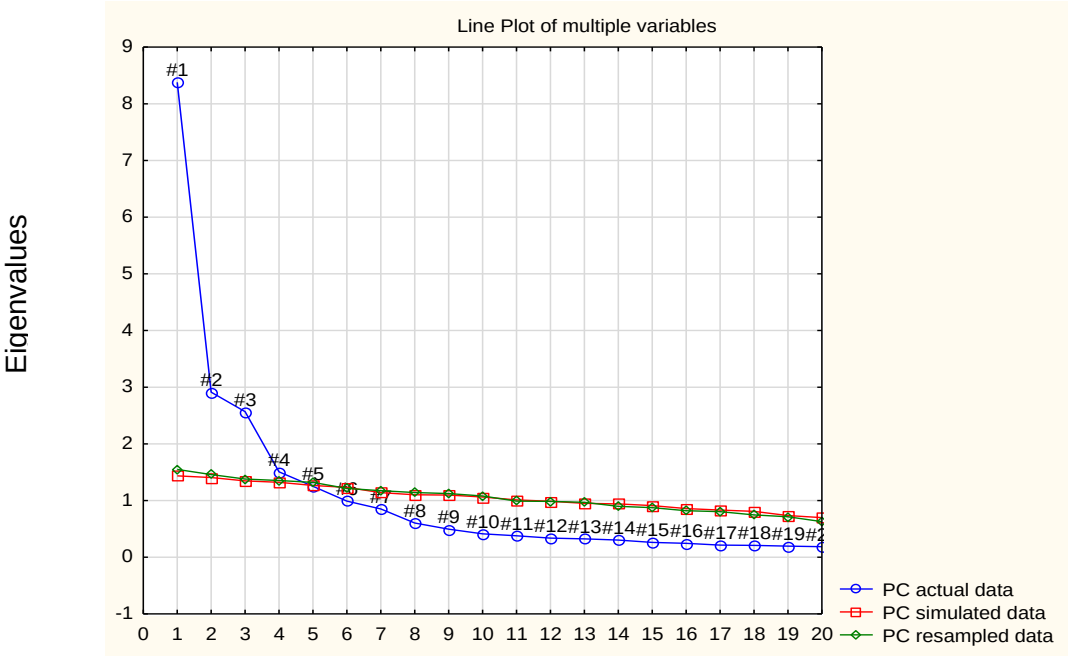


Table 5.28 indicates the eigenvalues that are confirming five factors as identified in the scree plot above.

Table 5.28
Eigenvalues

Value	Eigenvalue	% Total Variance	Cumulative Eigenvalue	Cumulative %
1	8.379553	36.43284	8.37955	36.43284
2	2.912347	12.66238	11.2919	49.09522
3	2.569236	11.17059	13.86114	60.26581
4	1.505766	6.54681	15.3669	66.81262
5	1.251232	5.44014	16.61813	72.25276

From the above scree plot and eigenvalues, there are only five factors to be extracted from the dataset. The five factors were therefore retained, which at this stage are unknown entities. The factor correlations below in Table 5.29 indicate how the five factors correlate amongst each other.

Table 5.29
Factor Correlations

	Var1	Var2	Var3	Var4	Var5
1	1	-.258839282	-.198806098	-.266314084	-.271577279
2	-.258839282	1	.208258262	.297954328	.116802149
3	-.198806098	.208258262	1	.191312664	.1968359
4	-.266314084	.297954328	.191312664	1	.234861618
5	-.271577279	.116802149	.1968359	.234861618	1

The oblimin rotation below assists in ascribing meaning to the factors and, according to Costello and Osborne (2005), the aim of rotation is to provide simplification and clarification of the data structure. Oblimin rotation is a method that produces factors that are correlated and is generally used in social science (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Table 5.30 below presents the factor loadings for the different subscales.

Table 5.30
The factor loadings after oblimin rotation

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
TL_Inspirational Leadership	-.04	-.91	-.01	00	-.06
TL_Intellectual Stimulation	-.08	-.90	.02	-.10	.00
TL_Idealised Influence	-.02	-.88	.04	-.02	-.02
TL_Individualised Consideration	.01	-.89	.02	-.01	-.08
JR_Growth Opportunities	.06	-.17	-.05	-.69	-.21
JR_Organisational Support	.01	-.40	-.18	-60	-.01
JR_Social Support	-.02	-.07	-.09	-.72	.18
JR_Advancement	.60	.01	.03	-.37	-.20
JR_Job Insecurity	.04	.07	.08	-.58	.04
JE_Organisational Fit	.19	-.18	-.10	-.62	-.14
JE_Organisational Sacrifice	.49	-.04	-.05	-.38	-.28
OC_Managerial Competence	.04	.10	.85	.01	.09
OC_Employee Commitment	-.17	-.04	.79	-.04	.17
OC_Co-operation & Co-ordination	-.01	-.05	.92	-.04	-.03
OC_Consistency & Customer Orientation	.10	-.08	.89	.06	-.11
SP_Level	.83	.06	.04	-.05	-.19
SP_Benefits	.83	.05	-.03	-.02	-.01
SP_Raises	.80	.06	-.01	-.08	-.11
SP_Structure/Admin	.83	.01	-.06	-.05	-.07
JE_Organisational Links	-.42	.18	.03	-.11	-.35
ITQ_Q127	-.20	.14	.03	-.12	.83
ITQ_Q128	-.08	.13	.19	.03	.71
ITQ_129	-.19	.12	.04	-.04	.81

Table 5.30 indicates the loadings of the factors on each of the underlying subscales. The higher the factor loading, the more influence that factor had on the subscale. Factor loadings can also be negative, and in social science it is more common to have low to moderate communalities of .40 to .80. In cases where the communality is less than .40 it may be because the factor is not related to other items or it suggests that an additional factor should be explored. The loadings above .40 are highlighted in yellow in Table 7.4. Factor 1 seems to represent satisfaction with general benefits and includes the advancement subscale and all four Satisfaction with Pay subscales. The subscales Organisational Links and Organisational Sacrifice loaded onto two different factors and should be regarded as ambiguous. Factor 2 overlaps perfectly with the subscales of transformational leadership. Factor 3 overlaps perfectly with the subscales of organisational culture. Factor 4 represents the job resources cluster consisting of all Job Resources subscales, except for

advancement, but with the addition of job embeddedness: organisational fit. Factor 5 represents intention to quit. Clearly job embeddedness did not form a factor on its own and organisational links had ambiguous factor loadings. The same is true of the job embeddedness: organisational sacrifice. The results could be seen as an initial indication that two of the Job Embeddedness subscales are structurally ambiguous.

The EFA is exploratory and offers no inferential statistics, therefore is not to be used to test hypotheses or theories, as it has not been designed with that purpose in mind. The PLS model to be assessed is presented in Figure 5.3 below, and the evaluation of the measurement and structural model is also presented in the following section. This is a theoretical presentation of the PLS path model.

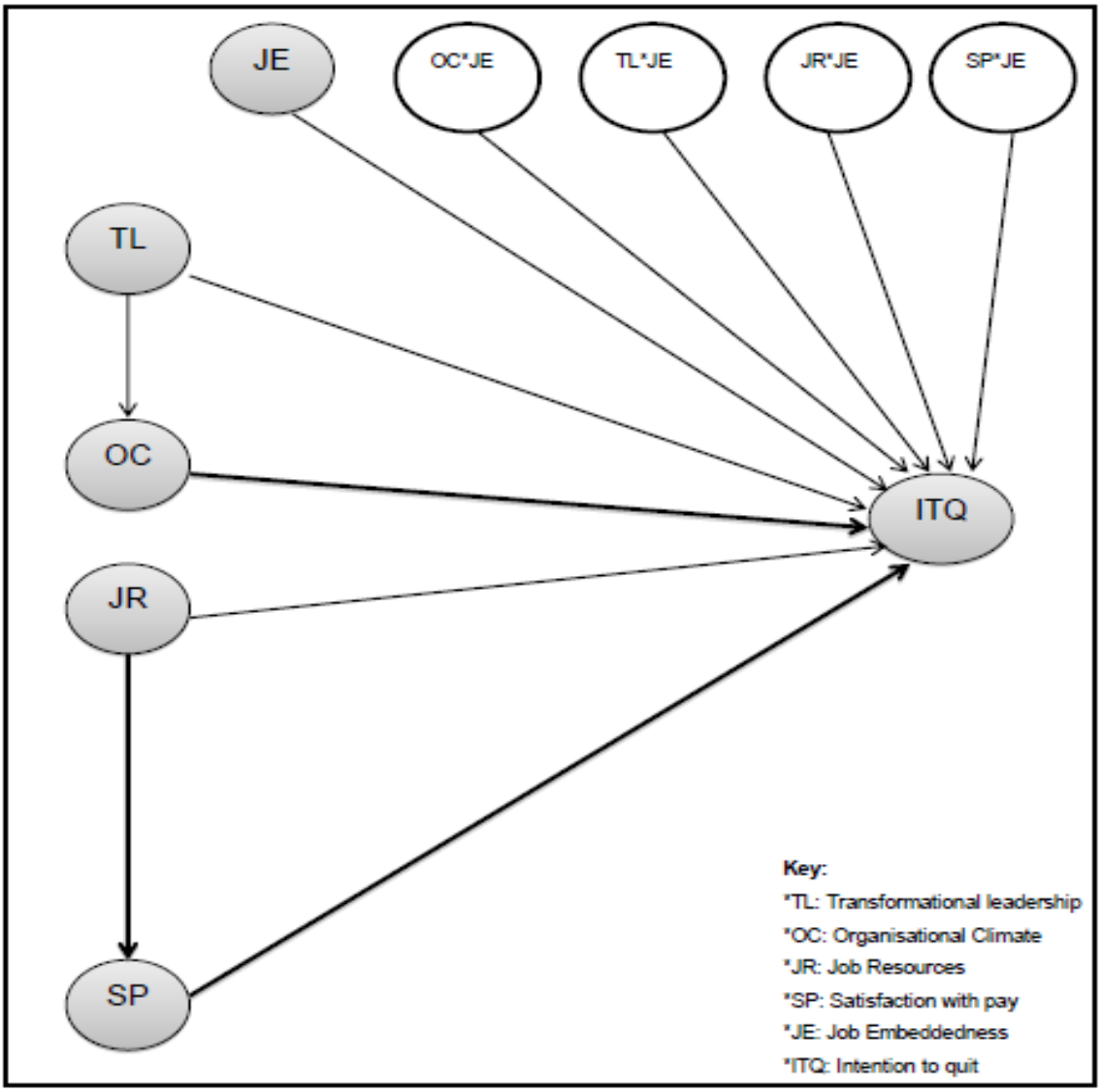


Figure 5.3: Theoretical presentation of PLS path model (Model 1)

5.11. EVALUATION OF THE MEASUREMENT MODEL (MODEL 1)

As discussed in Chapter 4, assessing the measurement model of reflective models includes determining indicator reliability (squared standardised outer loadings), internal consistency reliability (composite reliability), convergent validity (average variance extracted, AVE), and discriminant validity (Fornell-Larcker criterion, cross-loading) (Hair et al., 2012). In the tables below the composite reliability, AVE and discriminant validity are presented for this study.

5.11.1. Composite reliability

Composite reliability in this case determines how well the latent variables measure manifest variables and for that a value greater than .70 would be deemed acceptable. Table 5.31 below presents the composite reliability of Model 1.

Table 5.31
Composite reliability

Latent Variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%
ITQ	.935	.918	.950
Job Resources	.839	.795	.870
Job Embeddedness	.693	.642	.742
Org Climate	.923	.901	.939
Sat W Pay	.931	.916	.944
Trans Leadership	.947	.933	.958

Table 5.31 indicates that all the values are acceptable, although the composite reliability of job embeddedness is marginally below it. It is, however, considered close enough to .70 to be acceptable. Just one of the many indications that there is something amiss with the Job Embeddedness scale that includes Organisational Links.

5.11.2. Average variance extracted (AVE)

Table 5.32 presents the AVE – the rule of thumb is that a value greater than .50 indicates that the construct explains more than half of the variance of its indicators (Riou et al., 2016).

Table 5.32
Average variance extracted

Latent Variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%
ITQ	.829	.790	.864
Job Resources	.525	.463	.581
Job Embeddedness	.570	.540	.598
Org Climate	.750	.696	.793
Sat W Pay	.773	.733	.809
Trans Leadership	.817	.778	.851

All the values are greater than .50 and therefore deemed acceptable. This means that more than half of the variance in the respective indicators is explained by the constructs of job resources, job embeddedness, organisational climate, satisfaction with pay, transformational leadership and intention to quit in the model. This should be seen as a satisfactory state of affairs.

5.11.3. Discriminant validity

The aim of discriminant validity is to determine whether the constructs in the model are truly distinct (Riou et al., 2016). Table 5.33 presents the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT), which indicates whether two constructs that are pairwise compared are truly distinct.

Table 5.33
Heterotrait-monotrait ratio

		Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio			
From variable	To variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Discriminate
JR*JE	ITQ	.131	.028	.258	Yes
Job Resources	ITQ	.524	.387	.655	Yes
Job Resources	JR*JE	.439	.264	.562	Yes
Job Embedded	ITQ	.704	.565	.847	Yes
Job Embedded	JR*JE	.438	.221	.581	Yes
Job Embedded	Job Resources	1.088	.999	1.176	No
OC*JE	ITQ	.08	.014	.204	Yes
OC*JE	JR*JE	.253	.02	.588	Yes
OC*JE	Job Resources	.061	.042	.269	Yes
OC*JE	Job Embedded	.127	.038	.378	Yes
Org Climate	ITQ	.382	.232	.523	Yes
Org Climate	JR*JE	.064	.039	.228	Yes
Org Climate	Job Resources	.36	.211	.553	Yes
Org Climate	Job Embedded	.433	.241	.663	Yes
Org Climate	OC*JE	.262	.073	.452	Yes
SP*JE	ITQ	.016	.017	.16	Yes
SP*JE	JR*JE	.644	.528	.762	Yes
SP*JE	Job Resources	.176	.089	.331	Yes
SP*JE	Job Embedded	.202	.069	.433	Yes
SP*JE	OC*JE	.209	.011	.551	Yes
SP*JE	Org Climate	.044	.023	.248	Yes
Sat W Pay	ITQ	.577	.461	.678	Yes
Sat W Pay	JR*JE	.095	.028	.232	Yes
Sat W Pay	Job Resources	.606	.505	.696	Yes
Sat W Pay	Job Embedded	.887	.751	.985	Yes
Sat W Pay	OC*JE	.039	.025	.232	Yes
Sat W Pay	Org Climate	.267	.127	.451	Yes
Sat W Pay	SP*JE	.114	.025	.302	Yes
TL*JE	ITQ	.066	.014	.182	Yes
TL*JE	JR*JE	.68	.525	.783	Yes

Table 5.33 (continued)

Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio					
From variable	To variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Discriminate
TL*JE	Job Resources	.276	.121	.426	Yes
TL*JE	Job Embedded	.354	.134	.518	Yes
TL*JE	OC*JE	.175	.009	.511	Yes
TL*JE	Org Climate	.061	.027	.218	Yes
TL*JE	SP*JE	.448	.237	.619	Yes
TL*JE	Sat W Pay	.074	.018	.231	Yes
TL	ITQ	.336	.21	.457	Yes
TL	JR*JE	.227	.063	.362	Yes
TL	Job Resources	.569	.455	.685	Yes
TL	Job Embedded	.607	.442	.74	Yes
TL	OC*JE	.052	.015	.215	Yes
TL	Org Climate	.203	.081	.377	Yes
TL	SP*JE	.076	.017	.239	Yes
TL	Sat W Pay	.239	.106	.372	Yes
TL	TL*JE	.213	.036	.376	Yes

The above discriminant validity table shows that all the constructs have discriminant validity except for job embeddedness and job resources. This supports the inference that they should probably be one construct and not separate -something that should be investigated further.

5.11.4. Outer loadings

The outer loadings provide insight in terms of how significant the loadings of the latent constructs are on their manifest variables. The outer loadings are presented in Table 5.34.

Table 5.34
Outer Loadings (CI)

From variable	To variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Significant from CI	P-value of T-test
ITQ	ITQ_Q127	.932	.905	.952	Yes	.00
ITQ	ITQ_Q128	.858	.812	.894	Yes	.00
ITQ	ITQ_Q129	.939	.919	.955	Yes	.00
Job Embedded	JE_Organisational Fit	.901	.852	.93	Yes	.00
Job Embedded	JE_Organisational Links	-.134	-.295	.072	No	.16
Job Embedded	JE_Organisational Sacrifice	.939	.921	.953	Yes	.00
Job Resources	JR_Advancement	.847	.815	.875	Yes	.00

Table 5.34 (continued)

From variable	To variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Significant from CI	P-value of T-test
Job Resources	JR_Growth Opportunities	.855	.807	.887	Yes	.00
Job Resources	JR_Job Insecurity	.427	.249	.568	Yes	.00
Job Resources	JR_Organisational Support	.807	.733	.857	Yes	.00
Job Resources	JR_Social Support	.586	.444	.686	Yes	.00
Org Climate	OC_Co-operation & Co-ordination	.866	.81	.904	Yes	.00
Org Climate	OC_Consistency & Customer	.771	.69	.83	Yes	.00
Org Climate	OC_ Employee Commitment	.904	.874	.933	Yes	.00
Org Climate	OC_Managerial Competence	.915	.887	.936	Yes	.00
Sat W Pay	SP_Benefits	.825	.773	.866	Yes	.00
Sat W Pay	SP_Level	.904	.882	.922	Yes	.00
Sat W Pay	SP_Raises	.888	.855	.916	Yes	.00
Sat W Pay	SP_Structure / Admin	.897	.868	.921	Yes	.00
TL	TL_Idealised Influence	.881	.838	.913	Yes	.00
TL	TL_Individualised Consideration	.908	.878	.93	Yes	.00
TL	TL_Inspiration Leadership	.921	.896	.941	Yes	.00
TL	TL_Intellectual Stimulation	.906	.864	.935	Yes	.00

The loading of job embeddedness onto organisational links was not significant. Based on this finding and the preceding analyses it is clear that organisational links should be removed from the model. This will be investigated in Model 2.

5.11.5. Evaluation of the structural model

Once evidence for reliability and validity has been established through the measurement model assessment it is appropriate to evaluate the structural model estimates as well (Hair et al., 2012).

Figure 5.4 below presents the PLS path model with the structural loadings for Model 1.

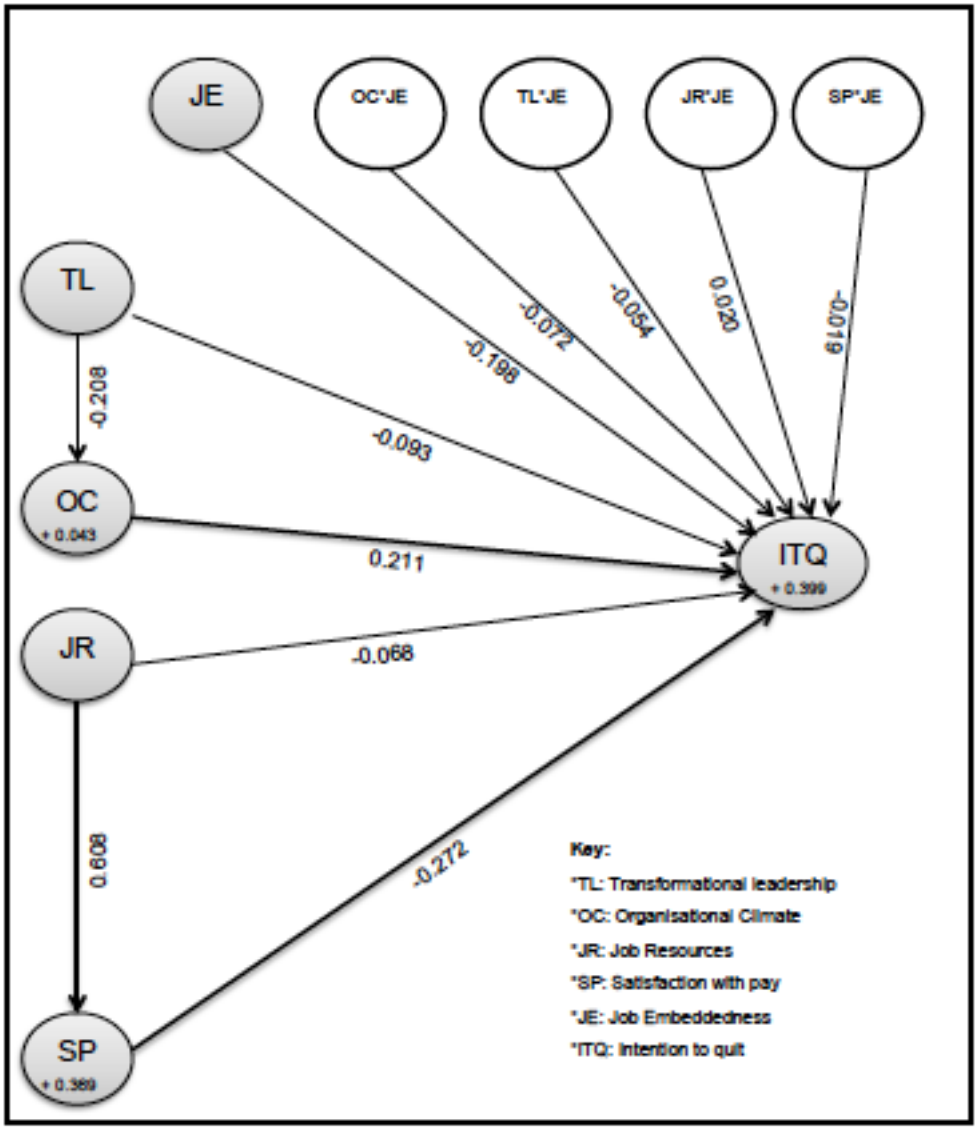


Figure 5.4: PLS Path model with structural loadings (Model 1)

Hair et al. (2012) further postulate that the main criterion for evaluating the structural model is the coefficient of determination (R^2), which shows the amount of explained variance of each endogenous latent variable. Table 5.35 presents the R^2 values.

Table 5.35
Evaluation of the structural or structural model – R^2

Variables	R Square	R Square Adjusted
ITQ	.399	.378
Org Climate	.043	.040
Sat W Pay	.369	.367

Table 5.35 indicates that approximately 60 per cent of the factors influencing intention to quit are not included in the model.

Prior to assessing the structural model, it is prudent to test for collinearity, which is considered a key step since the estimation of the path coefficients is based on ordinary least squares regressions (OLS). Ordinary least squares (OLS) refers to the method for estimating unknown parameters in a linear regression model. Thus, it may be biased if multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2012) is present. Multicollinearity is an occurrence where one predictor variable in a multiple regression model can be linearly predicted from other variables with a degree of accuracy. The variance inflation factor presents an assessment of how much the variance of the estimated regression coefficient is "inflated" by the existence of correlation among the predictor variables in the model. A value of 4 normally signifies further investigation, while a value of 10 indicates serious multicollinearity. In the current study a value larger than 5 was chosen as indicative of a problem.

Table 5.36
Multicollinearity in Model 1

Variable Variance	**Inflation Factors ITQ**
ITQ	
JR*JE	2.902
Job Resources	3.492
Job Embeddedness	3.440
OC*JE	1.184
Org Climate	1.284
SP*JE	1.833
Sat W Pay	1.925
TL*JE	1.878
Trans Leadership	1.357

Given the above rule of thumb it is evident that no problem has been found based on the variance inflation factor (VIF) with values being below 5.

The path coefficients indicate the strength of relationships between the latent variables and according to Hair et al. (2012) present evidence of the structural model's quality (all coefficients with a p value smaller than .05 are to be considered significant). Table 5.37 below presents the path coefficients.

Table 5.37
Path coefficients of Model 1

From variable	To variable	Original sample (O)	2.50 %	97.50 %	Significant from CI	P-value of coefficient
JR*JE	ITQ	.020	-.122	.140	No	.78
Job Resources	ITQ	-.068	-.261	.109	No	.47
Job Resources	Sat W Pay	.608	.541	.675	Yes	.00
Job Embeddedness	ITQ	-.198	-.379	-.034	Yes	.03
OC*JE	ITQ	-.072	-.174	.044	No	.19
Org Climate	ITQ	.211	.060	.341	Yes	.00
SP*JE	ITQ	-.019	-.117	.121	No	.75
Sat W Pay	ITQ	-.272	-.414	-.135	Yes	.00
TL*JE	ITQ	-.054	-.175	.072	No	.38
Trans Leadership	ITQ	-.093	-.209	.035	No	.14
Trans Leadership	Org Climate	-.208	-.361	-.064	Yes	.01

It is evident from the path coefficient table in Table 5.37 above that there are five significant path coefficients. Significance is shown by the column indicating yes or no. Where yes is indicated, it means that a significant relationship exists between the two paired variables. The five significant path coefficients are between (1) job resources and satisfaction with pay, (2) job embeddedness and intention to quit, (3) organisational climate and intention to quit, (4) satisfaction with pay and intention to quit and lastly (5) transformational leadership and organisational climate. In the interpretation of these results, one should note that job embeddedness has a negative path coefficient with ITQ and that the sign of the path coefficients involving organisational climate should be reversed. The discussion of the implications of these results will be presented in Chapter 6.

5.12. EVALUATION OF MODEL 2 (WITHOUT ORGANISATIONAL LINKS)

The revised model (Model 2), with the removal of organisational links consisted of six constructs with 22 indicators: intention to quit (ITQ) = 3 indicators; job embeddedness (JE) = 2 indicators; job resources (JR) = 5 indicators; organisational climate (OC) = 4 indicators; satisfaction with pay (SP) = 4 indicators; and transformational leadership (TL) = 4 indicators. Figure 5.5 presents the goodness-of-fit analysis of the revised measurement model.

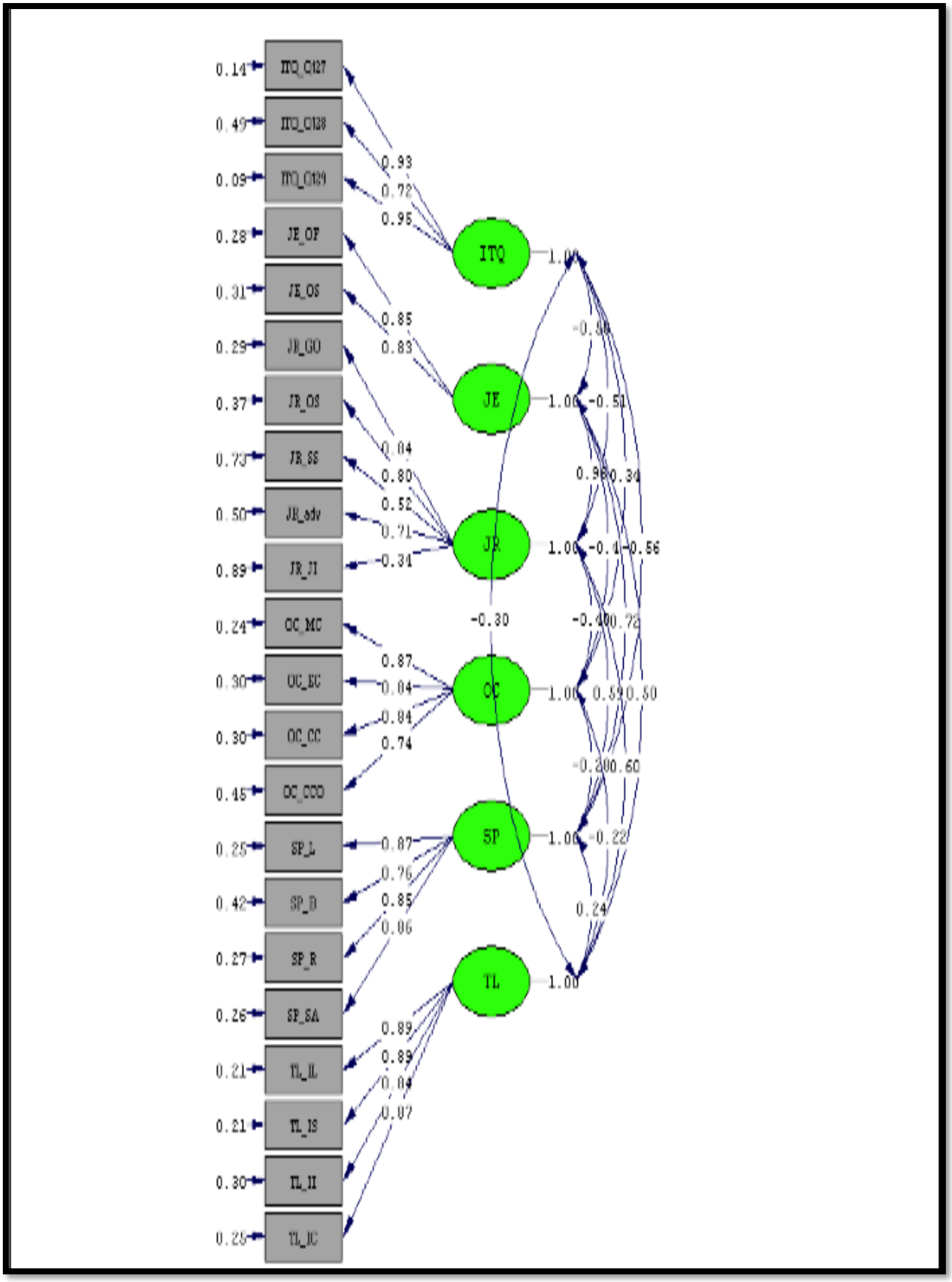


Figure 5.5: CFA 1: Goodness of fit (Model 2)

The results of the CFA of Model 2 (without organisational links) revealed a lack of fit and worsened the degree of fit compared to Model 1. The CFA for Model 2 delivered the following results: The degrees of freedom (DF) was 194; a normal theory weighted least square Chi-square of 738.47 was obtained (p = .00); the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .10; with a 90 per cent confidence interval for RMSEA of .095 to .11; the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) was .80 and an AGFI was .74.

It is evident that in Model 2 the RMSEA was found to be .10, compared to the RMSEA for Model 1 of .098.

In both assessments of the goodness of fit of the respective measurement models the indices indicated that the data did not support the model.

Table 5.38
Differences between Model 1 and Model 2 with respect to job embeddedness

Analysis	Model 1 Value	Model 2 Value
Composite reliability	.693	.919
Average variance extracted	.570	.849

With the removal of organisational links one can observe an improvement in the composite reliability for job embeddedness from .693 to .919. This ensures that the Job Embeddedness Scale now has satisfactory psychometric properties.

There is also an improvement in the AVE for job embeddedness from .57 to .849. All the other values were the same. This means that the construct also now explains more of the variance in its indicators.

5.12.1. Discriminant validity: heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT)ratio for Model 2

The aim of discriminant validity is to determine whether the constructs that are not related in the model are truly distinct (Riou et al., 2016). Table 5.39 presents the HTMT for Model 2, which indicates whether the paired constructs are distinct or not.

Table 5.39
Discriminant validity of the constructs in Model 2

From variable	To variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Discriminate
JR*JE	ITQ	.137	.027	.274	Yes
Job Resources	ITQ	.524	.394	.658	Yes
Job Resources	JR*JE	.431	.248	.559	Yes
Job Embeddedness	ITQ	.629	.511	.735	Yes
Job Embeddedness	JR*JE	.312	.137	.450	Yes
Job Embeddedness	Job Resources	.946	.871	1.009	No
OC*JE	ITQ	.079	.013	.207	Yes
OC*JE	JR*JE	.261	.019	.570	Yes
OC*JE	Job Resources	.059	.043	.254	Yes
OC*JE	Job Embeddedness	.121	.014	.306	Yes
Org Climate	ITQ	.382	.231	.532	Yes
Org Climate	JR*JE	.063	.034	.227	Yes
Org Climate	Job Resources	.360	.211	.566	Yes
Org Climate	Job Embeddedness	.389	.214	.572	Yes
Org Climate	OC*JE	.266	.072	.465	Yes
SP*JE	ITQ	.019	.017	.170	Yes
SP*JE	JR*JE	.631	.491	.746	Yes
SP*JE	Job Resources	.171	.085	.326	Yes
SP*JE	Job Embeddedness	.068	.026	.268	Yes
SP*JE	OC*JE	.212	.012	.503	Yes
SP*JE	Org Climate	.045	.022	.241	Yes
Sat W Pay	ITQ	.577	.458	.679	Yes
Sat W Pay	JR*JE	.087	.028	.229	Yes
Sat W Pay	Job Resources	.606	.488	.695	Yes
Sat W Pay	Job Embeddedness	.731	.628	.820	Yes
Sat W Pay	OC*JE	.040	.024	.217	Yes
Sat W Pay	Org Climate	.267	.128	.445	Yes
Sat W Pay	SP*JE	.128	.026	.308	Yes
TL*JE	ITQ	.066	.013	.196	Yes
TL*JE	JR*JE	.672	.511	.781	Yes
TL*JE	Job Resources	.268	.109	.426	Yes
TL*JE	Job Embeddedness	.214	.068	.367	Yes
TL*JE	OC*JE	.175	.008	.459	Yes
TL*JE	Org Climate	.061	.026	.221	Yes
TL*JE	SP*JE	.427	.207	.599	Yes
TL*JE	Sat W Pay	.062	.019	.212	Yes
Trans Leadership	ITQ	.336	.206	.466	Yes
Trans Leadership	JR*JE	.221	.052	.360	Yes
Trans Leadership	Job Resources	.569	.450	.688	Yes
Trans Leadership	Job Embeddedness	.495	.367	.612	Yes
Trans Leadership	OC*JE	.051	.012	.206	Yes
Trans Leadership	Org Climate	.203	.074	.378	Yes
Trans Leadership	SP*JE	.064	.014	.221	Yes
Trans Leadership	Sat W Pay	.239	.106	.354	Yes
Trans Leadership	TL*JE	.208	.032	.383	Yes

The above discriminant validity table shows that all the constructs are independent except for one pair, namely job embeddedness and job resources, even after removing organisational links. This means that even without the Links subscale Job embeddedness and Job Resources overlap significantly. This result will be further investigated in Model 3.

A closer look at the outer loadings of the job embeddedness construct on its two manifest variables is presented in Table 5.40 below.

Table 5.40
Outer loadings of the job embeddedness construct in Model 2

From variable	To variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50 %	97.50 %	Significant from CI	P-Value from Test
Job Embeddedness	JE_Organisational Fit	.902	.852	.931	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Organisational Sacrifice	.941	.926	.954	Yes	0

With the removal of organisational links, the outer loadings for the job embeddedness construct have improved. The current outer loadings for Job Embeddedness underscore the fact that the latent variable loads very strongly on its manifest variables.

The following section and Figure 5.6 present the re-assessment of the PLS structural equation model (Model 2). All the analyses exclude organisational links to examine what and if any differences would be observed.

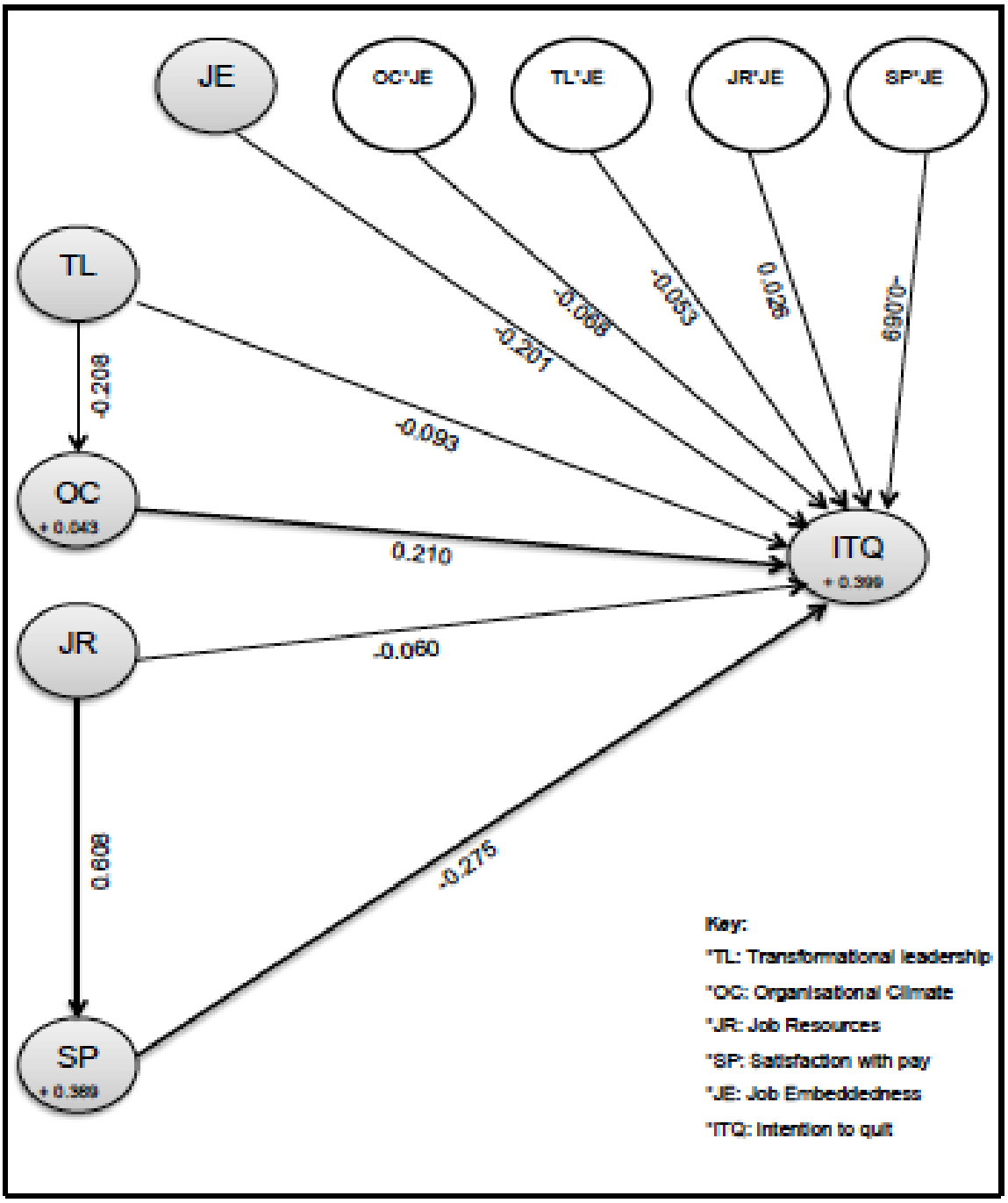


Figure 5.6: PLS Model without organisational links (Model 2)

An analysis of the R^2 values of the constructs in Model 2 has indicated that they have remained unchanged between Model 1 and Model 2.

Table 5.41 below presents the results for testing for multicollinearity.

Table 5.41
Multicollinearity in Model 2

Variable	Variance Inflation Factors ITO
ITO	
JR*JE	2.833
Job Resources	3.503
Job Embeddedness	3.380
OC*JE	1.197
Org Climate	1.291
SP*JE	1.789
Sat W Pay	1.911
TL*JE	1.843
Trans Leadership	1.355

Only slight changes are observed in the variance inflation factors (VIF) after the removal of organisational links. Therefore, considering the above values no problem has been found with respect to the VIF values as all values are below 5, according to the current decision rule.

The following table presents the path coefficients, which are considered the most important aspect in that they indicate the strength of the relationships between the latent variables. The rule of thumb here is that all relationships with a p-value greater than .05 can be considered significant. Table 5.42 below presents the path coefficients without organisational links.

Table 5.42
Path coefficients for Model 2

	From	To	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Significant from CI	P-Value of Test
JR*JE -> ITQ	JR*JE	ITQ	.026	-.139	.159	No	.72
Job Resources -> ITQ	Job Resources	ITQ	-.060	-.234	.132	No	.52
Job Resources -> Sat W Pay	Job Resources	Sat W Pay	.608	.535	.672	Yes	.00
Job Embeddedness -> ITQ	Job Embeddedness	ITQ	-.201	-.372	-.037	Yes	.02
OC*JE -> ITQ	OC*JE	ITQ	-.068	-.177	.035	No	.21
Org Climate -> ITQ	Org Climate	ITQ	.210	.063	.346	Yes	.00
SP*JE -> ITQ	SP*JE	ITQ	-.016	-.112	.124	No	.79
Sat W Pay -> ITQ	Sat W Pay	ITQ	-.275	-.434	-.137	Yes	.00
TL*JE -> ITQ	TL*JE	ITQ	-.053	-.174	.065	No	.39
Trans Leadership -> ITQ	Trans Leadership	ITQ	-.093	-.210	.031	No	.13
Trans Leadership -> Org Climate	Trans Leadership	Org Climate	-.208	-.362	-.052	Yes	.01

It is evident from the path coefficient table above that there is no significant change to the path coefficients after the removal of organisational links, compared to the initial findings. The same 5 path coefficients are still the only ones being significant, namely job resources, job embeddedness, organisational climate, satisfaction with pay, and transformational leadership.

5.13. EVALUATION OF THE POSTULATED MODERATION EFFECTS IN THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Table 5.43 below presents the findings of the test for moderation to examine whether the postulated moderation effects are in fact observable.

Table 5.43
Univariate tests for moderation with ITQ as dependent variable and job embeddedness as moderator

Independent variable	Interaction coefficient	R^2 with interaction	R^2 indiv var only	R-square change	F- to remove	P-value
Trans Leadership	-.47	.28	.28	0	.69	.41
Trans Leadership	-.51	.30	.30	0	.92	.34
Job Resources	-.41	.27	.27	0	.14	.71
Job Resources	-.49	.29	.29	0	1,11	.29
Org Clim	-.44	.30	.30	0	1,23	.27
Org Clim	-.47	.32	.32	0	1,53	.22
Sat W Pay	-.32	.34	.34	0	.19	.67
Sat W Pay	-.35	.34	.34	0	.01	.94

The results of the univariate test for moderation reported above indicate that there are no moderating effects as all the p-values are larger than .05. This means that the postulated moderating role of Job Embeddedness with respect to the impact of the four independent variables, namely transformational leadership, job resources, organisational climate and satisfaction with pay, on intention to quit was not supported.

5.14. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A THIRD MODEL: FACTORIALLY DERIVED MODEL

The first factor analysis conducted on Model 1 was at a subscale level. The section to follow presents the results of factor analysis at an item level and the differences in the data between the model with and without organisational links.

The section starts with a factor analysis at item level including organisational links. Figure 5.7 presents the parallel analysis at item level including organisational links.

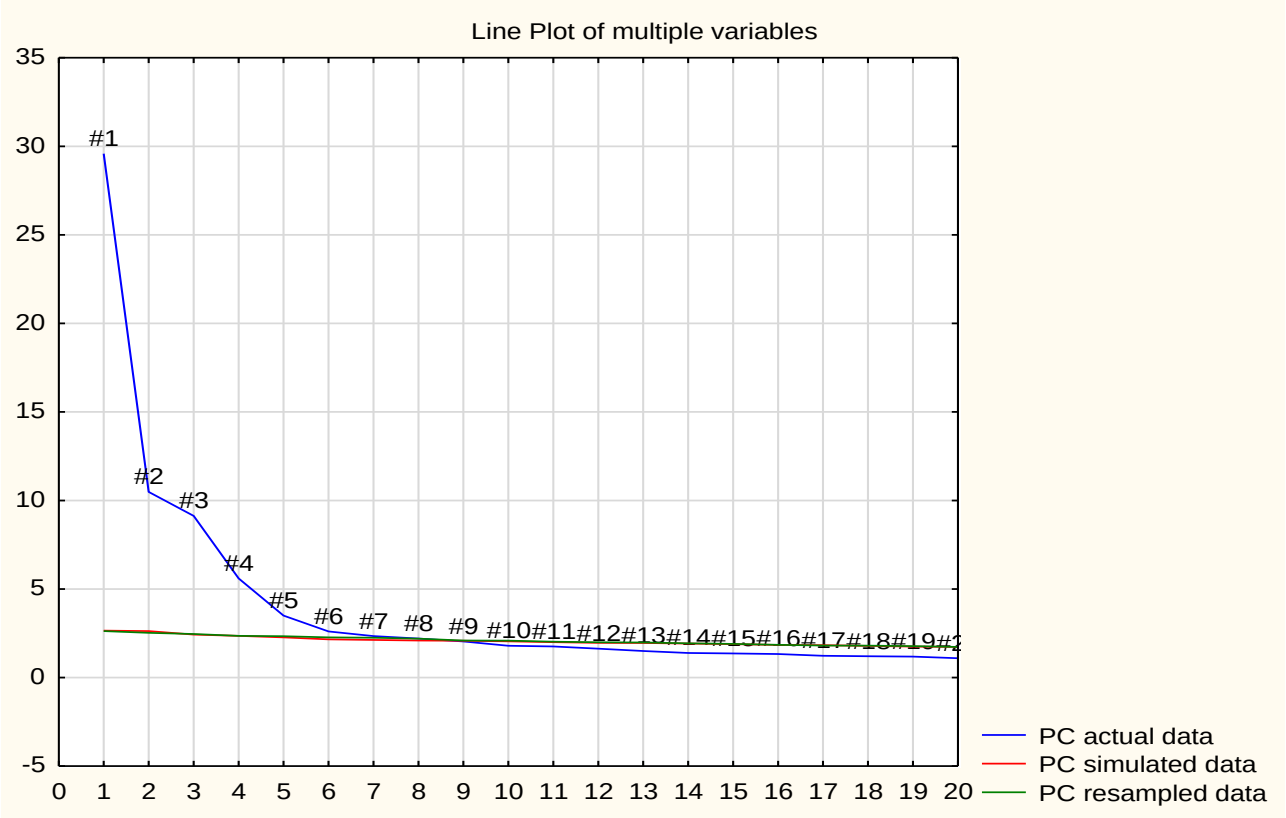


Figure 5.7: Parallel analysis

In conducting factor analysis at item level, seven factors surfaced, as opposed to the five factors that surfaced during the factor analysis at a subscale level.

From the above scree plot and eigenvalues, seven factors were extracted from the dataset when analysed at an item level as opposed to the five factors that were extracted from a subscale level. The seven factors were therefore retained, which, at this stage are unknown entities. The eigenvalues below in Table 5.44 indicate how the seven factors contribute to the total variance explained in the measurement model.

Table 5.44
Eingenvalues

Value	Eingenvalue	% Total Variance	Cumulative Eigenvalue	Cumulative %
1	29.58205	25.50177	29.58205	25.50177
2	10.48220	9.03638	40.06425	34.53815
3	9.13142	7.87192	49.19567	42.41006
4	5.59697	4.82497	54.79264	47.23504
5	3.49737	3.01497	58.29001	50.25001
6	2.60453	2.24528	60.89454	52.49529
7	2.33989	2.01714	63.23443	54.51244

The oblimin rotation below assists in assigning meaning to the factors, according to Costello and Osborne (2005). Table 5.45 presents the values for the variables in the model, including the seven factors and the inclusion of organisational links.

Table 5.45
Oblimin rotation

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Q9	-.07	-.02	-.10	-.77	.11	.04	-.04
Q10	-.02	.08	.05	-.73	.03	.04	.06
Q11	.11	.04	.04	-.60	-.12	.03	.15
Q12	.09	.07	00	-.66	.05	-.07	-.03
Q13	.06	-.03	.03	-0.7	.02	.14	.04
Q14	-.07	-.01	.04	-.77	-.02	.01	00
Q15	.07	.09	-.07	-.68	.07	.04	.11
Q16	.18	.11	0	-.67	-.05	-.15	.04
Q17	.02	-.05	-.05	-.73	-.10	-.09	-.11
Q18	-.09	-.07	-.06	-.78	-.04	-.07	-.90
Q19	-.08	-.01	.08	-.65	.10	-.09	-.16
Q20	.03	00	.01	-.68	00	.01	.02
Q21	-.12	-.04	.12	-.64	.05	.06	.04
Q22	.01	.03	00	-.81	-.10	-.05	.10
Q23	-.04	-.07	.08	-.65	.03	.04	.07
Q24	.06	.04	.02	-.78	-.05	-.08	-.04
Q25	.11	-.01	-.12	-.74	-.05	-.01	-.05
Q26	.03	.04	-.01	-.69	.08	-.16	-.12
Q27	.12	.07	-.09	-.72	-.01	00	.01
Q29(reversed)	.34	-.04	.04	-.08	-.22	.06	-.20
Q30	.62	.10	.01	-.12	.13	-.13	.03
Q31	.59	-.01	-.07	-.10	.20	-.11	-.06
Q32	.49	-.14	-.13	-.11	.11	-.27	-.12
Q33	.56	-.11	-.08	-.11	.25	-.14	-.12
Q34	.53	-.07	.01	-.05	.31	-.09	-.16
Q35	.33	.02	-.07	-.08	.51	-.03	-.12
Q36	.35	-.01	-.03	-.03	.49	-.02	-.21
Q37	.33	.03	-.07	-.08	.42	-.08	-.08
Q38	.10	-.03	-.04	-.13	.55	-.16	.03
Q39	.08	-.02	-.06	-.09	.64	-.15	.07
Q40	.09	-.05	-.10	.01	.71	-.07	.09
Q41	-.08	-.07	-.13	-.46	.47	-.12	-.19
Q42	-.07	-.06	-.13	-.44	.53	-.07	-.18
Q43	00	-.20	-.14	-.46	.43	-.02	-.24
Q44	.34	-.06	00	.04	.53	.07	-.10
Q45	.16	-.06	-.09	.04	.60	.09	.02
Q46	.04	-.11	-.12	-.35	.42	.15	-.02
Q47	.33	-.12	-.04	-.28	.33	.04	-.09
Q48	.31	-.10	-.14	-.28	.32	.20	-.16
Q49	.12	-.09	-.19	-.44	.29	.13	-.15
Q50	-.08	-.09	-.16	-.43	.46	-.08	-.22

Table 5.45 (continued)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Q51	.36	-.09	0.1	-.18	.38	.08	-.26
Q52	-.07	.10	.03	.06	.78	.04	.03
Q53	-.04	-.05	.02	.06	.79	-.01	.04
Q54	.10	-.72	.07	.02	.03	-.03	-.29
Q55	.07	-.75	.10	.07	.02	-.02	-.24
Q56	.02	-.81	.07	-.02	-.01	-.10	-.23
Q57	.20	-.64	00	.04	.11	-.05	-.23
Q58	.29	-.02	-.15	-.05	.24	-.17	-.04
Q59	.41	-.26	.01	-.04	.17	-.12	-.09
Q60	.16	.05	.01	.04	00	-.81	-.16
Q61	.21	.04	.03	.02	.02	-.82	-.17
Q62	.19	-.01	.08	.01	-.02	-.70	-.21
Q64	.61	-.05	-.08	-.10	.12	-.05	-.04
Q65	.55	-.06	-.11	-.12	.23	-.09	.01
Q66	.44	-.29	-.08	-.15	.13	.01	-.19
Q67	.44	-.04	-.05	-.10	.23	.06	.11
Q68	.51	00	-.14	-.24	.20	.02	.20
Q69	.65	-.12	.03	-.05	.21	.02	.02
Q70	.64	-.07	-.06	-.14	.10	00	.05
Q71	.52	-.32	-.06	-.07	-.12	-.03	.18
Q72	.47	-.16	-.06	-.04	.30	.15	.04
Q73	.51	-.05	.02	.05	-.13	-.04	.09
Q74	.45	-.29	-.06	-.03	-.23	00	-.03
Q75	.55	-.28	-.03	-.09	-.08	-.05	.03
Q76	.26	-.64	.01	-.01	-.09	-.11	-.11
Q77	.36	-.57	.02	.01	-.10	-.01	.22
Q78	.41	-.42	-.14	-.09	.03	-.10	.05
Q86	.02	-.02	.74	.03	.03	.11	.07
Q87	-.06	-.02	.68	.14	.11	-.02	.07
Q88	-.08	-.08	.74	.07	.04	.06	.09
Q89	.02	-.05	.75	.10	.01	-.02	.08
Q90	.01	-.04	.81	.04	-.05	-.04	.07
Q91	-.15	00	.75	.07	.11	-.03	.10
Q92	-.02	.12	.58	.05	-.01	-.05	.10
Q93	-.08	.09	.70	-.03	-.01	-.15	.04
Q94	-.06	.18	.69	.06	.14	00	.15
Q95	-.08	.38	.47	-.03	.31	-.02	.18
Q96	.04	.32	.68	.04	.21	.03	.17
Q97	.06	-.07	.64	-.05	-.05	.01	-.06
Q98	-.09	.21	.70	-.08	.10	.04	.06
Q99	.09	.03	.73	-.07	-.09	-.11	-.13
Q100	.03	-.06	.76	-.09	-.09	-.02	-.11
Q101	-.08	.02	.67	-.09	.08	.04	.03
Q102	.17	.06	.85	.11	-.01	-.03	-.01
Q103	.12	-.14	.77	-.04	-.11	.07	-.14
Q104	.03	-.09	.80	-.11	-.21	.02	-.16
Q105	.03	-.13	.79	-.05	-.16	.02	-.18
Q106	-.06	-.19	.77	-.07	-.01	.11	-.17

Table 5.45 (continued)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Q108	-.09	-.88	-.01	.03	-.01	-.04	-.15
Q109	.15	-.64	-.04	.02	-.05	-.05	.39
Q110	.04	-.73	.04	.09	.09	00	-.07
Q111	-.07	-.62	-.09	-.14	.23	.03	.07
Q112	-.08	-.91	.07	.02	.02	-.05	-.12
Q113	.17	-.61	-.07	-.05	-.09	-.03	.37
Q114	-.02	-.69	.02	.08	.04	.06	.14
Q115	.08	-.74	00	.01	.11	00	.16
Q116	-.02	-.67	-.06	00	.05	-.10	.19
Q117	-.06	-.90	.01	-0.01	.06	.01	-.04
Q118	.23	-.63	.02	0.01	-.06	-.02	.41
Q119	.14	-.34	-.07	-0.02	.03	-.06	.38
Q120	00	-.70	-.03	-0.06	.02	-.06	.20
Q121	-.02	-.91	.05	0.02	.03	.02	-.03
Q122	.28	-.53	-.01	-0.04	-.09	-.03	.47
Q123	.08	-.69	-.04	0.02	.06	-.04	.10
Q124	.05	-.69	-.11	-0.07	.02	.01	.14
Q125	-.15	-.60	-.03	-0.13	.13	.05	.15
Q127	-.11	.48	.14	0.12	.15	.04	.25
Q128	-.13	.37	.26	0.14	.06	00	.26
Q129	-.12	.49	.15	0.1	.07	.05	.26
Q79_std	.09	.08	.05	0.11	.05	.40	-.12
Q80_std	.09	.08	.05	0.11	.06	.40	-.12
Q81_std	.01	.05	.02	0.09	.09	-.09	00
Q82_std	.12	.10	.05	-0.07	-.04	.26	-.12
Q83_std	.03	.06	-.12	0.08	-.31	.06	-.17
Q84_std	.21	.03	-.04	0.06	-.04	.17	-.11

Factor 1 named (job embeddedness) represents a combination of job embeddedness and job resources. The subscales of organisational fit (Item Q 64-69) and organisational sacrifice (Item Q 70-73, 75 & 78) combined with the growth opportunities subscale (Item Q 30-36) of the job resources scale. Items Q59, 66, 72, 74, 78 loaded on two factors and could be consider ambiguous.

We also observe that Factor 2 (satisfaction with benefits) represents a combination of job resources, job embeddedness and the majority of the items of the satisfaction with pay scale (Items Q108-118, 120-121, 123-125). The combination is specifically between the advancement subscale of job resources (Items Q 54-57, 59) and some items from organisational sacrifice (Items Q 74, 76-77), and two items from the intention to quit scale (Items Q127, 129), and one item from organisational fit (Item Q 66). All the job resources: advancement items deal with financial satisfaction, explaining its association with satisfaction with pay and the other two items of organisational sacrifice relating to training and promotion, which is similar to the growth opportunities of job resources. Factor 2 is

therefore renamed satisfaction with benefits (SWB). Items Q95 and 122 loaded onto two different factors and were considered ambiguous.

Factor 3 (supportive organisational climate) represents the existing scale (Item Q86-106) and therefore will not be renamed.

Factor 4 (transformational leadership) represents the transformational leadership scale and therefore does not need to be renamed. We also observed that items Q41, 42, 43, 46, 49, and 50 load on two factors and could be regarded as ambiguous. These items relate to manager and supervisory aspects (Item Q 41-44, 46, 49) of the organisational support subscale, which all relate to leadership.

Factor 5 (social support) represents a combination of a section of the job resources constructs, specifically organisational support (Items Q 45, 52, 53) and social support (Items Q 38-40). In this instance organisational support and social support form one factor. Some items loaded onto two factors (Factors 1 and 5) and should therefore be considered ambiguous, namely Q35-37.

Factor 6 represents items pertaining to job insecurity (Item Q 60-62) and two items from the JE: Organisational links subscale (Items Q79 and Q80), which deal with tenure in the current position and in the organisation respectively. Factor 6 will therefore be named job insecurity.

Factor 7 is represented by only one item, which loads onto two factors, namely Factors 2 and 7, and should thus be considered ambiguous. This single and ambiguous item should not be seen as of any practical significance. The one item deals with benefits (Item Q 122), which is a subset of satisfaction with pay. Factor 7 will therefore be called satisfaction with benefits.

The most notable feature of this analysis is the degree to which job embeddedness and job resources overlaps in Factors 1 and 2, and organisational and social support overlap in Factor 5. The overlap between job embeddedness and job resources will be clarified in the next EFA on the items without the organisational links subscale.

The following section presents the factor analysis at an item level **without** organisational links. A scree plot, eigenvalues and oblimin rotation is presented below. The scree plot in Figure 5.8 presents the parallel analysis without organisational links at itemised level.

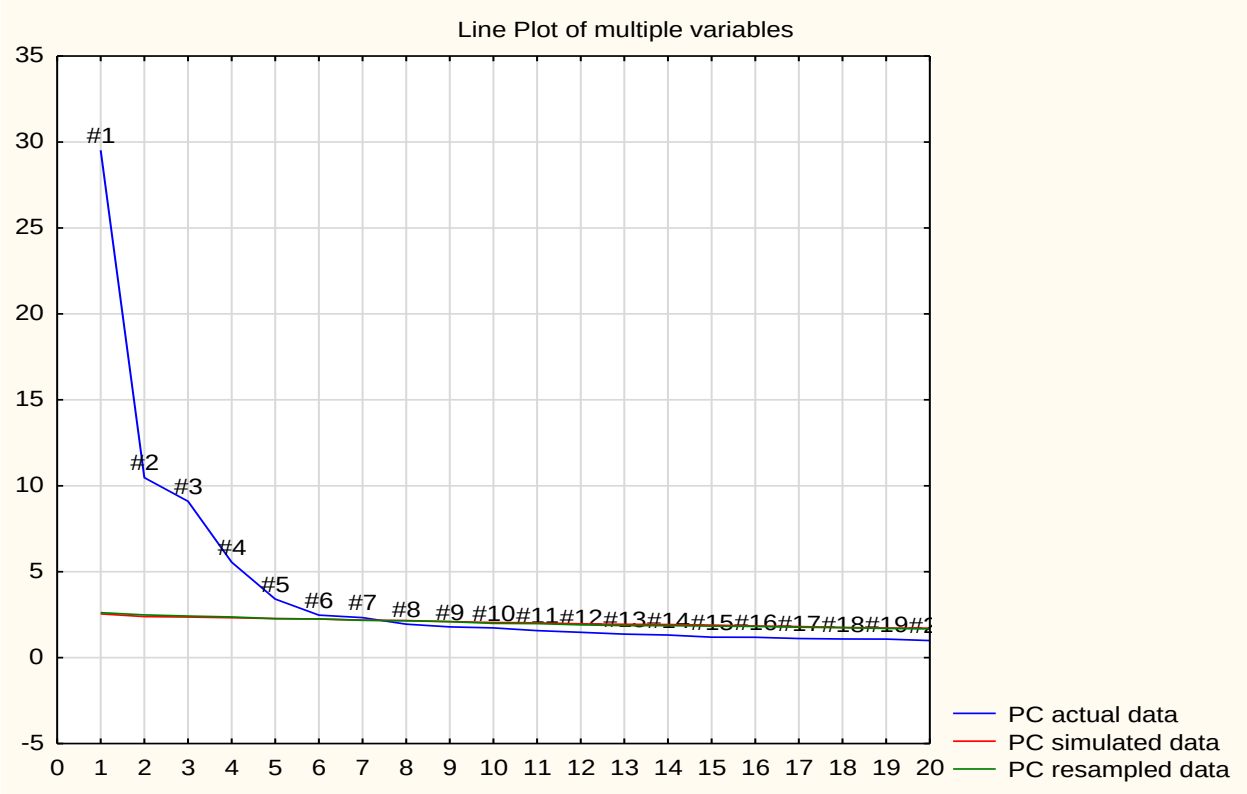


Figure 5.8: Parallel analysis (without organisational links)

In conducting factor analysis at item level without the inclusion of organisational links we observe that again seven factors surfaced as opposed to the five factors that surfaced during the factor analysis at a subscale level.

From the above scree plot and eigenvalues presented in Table 5.46 below it is clear that seven factors were extracted from the dataset when analysed at an item level as opposed to the five factors that were extracted at a subscale level.

Table 5.46
Eigenvalues (without organisational links at item level)

Value	Eigenvalue	% Total Variance	Cumulative Eigenvalue	Cumulative %
1	29.51915	29.83559	29.51915	26.83559
2	10.46971	9.51792	39.98886	36.35351
3	9.09728	8.27025	49.08614	44.62376
4	5.55522	5.05020	54.64136	49.67396
5	3.40602	3.09638	58.04738	52.77034
6	2.47191	2.24719	60.51928	55.01753
7	2.32658	2.11508	62.84587	57.13261

The seven factors were retained and at this stage are unknown entities. The factor correlations presented below in Table 5.47 indicate how the seven factors correlate amongst themselves.

Table 5.47
Factor correlations

	Var 1	Var 2	Var 3	Var 4	Var 5	Var 6	Var 7
1	1	.4	.24	-.33	-.20	.28	.13
2	.40	1	.20	-.19	-.03	.19	.07
3	.24	.20	1	-.19	-.13	.1	.06
4	-.33	-.19	-.19	1	.22	-.15	-.13
5	-.20	-.03	-.13	.22	1	-.11	0
6	.28	.19	.10	-.15	-.11	1	.06
7	.13	.07	.06	-.13	0	.06	1

In Table 5.47 above we observe that with the removal of organisational links the values of the factor correlations did change somewhat.

The oblimin rotation below assists in finding meaning with respect to the factors identified (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Table 5.48 presents the factor loadings on the various variables (items) in the model, excluding organisational links.

Table 5.48
Oblimin rotation

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Q9	-.05	.02	0.1	-.78	-.10	-.04	.05
Q10	-.04	-.05	-.05	-.74	-.02	-.01	-.08
Q11	.07	00	-.04	-.60	.13	-.04	-.15
Q12	.09	-.70	00	-.66	-.03	.06	.01
Q13	.07	.04	-.02	-.70	.05	-.12	-.02
Q14	-.06	.02	-.04	-.77	.02	-.03	.02
Q15	.07	-.06	.07	-.68	-.05	-.05	-.11
Q16	.15	-.09	00	-.66	.07	.12	-.07
Q17	00	.03	.05	-.73	.11	.10	.10
Q18	-.10	.06	.06	-.79	.05	.07	.09
Q19	-.03	-.02	-.09	-.64	-.09	.04	.17
Q20	.04	00	-.01	-.68	.02	-.03	-.01
Q21	-.12	.06	-.12	-.65	-.05	-.04	-.03
Q22	-.03	.01	00	-.82	.10	.03	-.11
Q23	-.03	.10	-.08	-.66	-.03	-.07	-.04
Q24	.03	-.03	-.02	-.78	.06	.08	.02
Q25	.09	.01	.13	-.74	.07	.04	.03
Q26	.01	-.06	.01	-.69	-.07	.16	.08
Q27	.13	-.07	.08	-.71	.04	-.01	-.01
Q29(reversed)	.40	-.03	-.04	-.06	.27	-.11	.25
Q30	.62	-.09	-.02	-.10	-.06	.17	-.08
Q31	.61	-.01	.06	-.08	-.12	.15	.02
Q32	.48	.11	.12	-.09	-.05	.29	.08
Q33	.61	.07	.07	-.09	-.17	.15	.11
Q34	.60	.20	-.01	-.03	-.22	.13	.15

Table 5.48 (continued)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Q35	.43	-.05	.06	-.06	-.44	.06	.11
Q36	.46	-.05	.02	00	-.42	.04	.21
Q37	.39	-.05	.06	-.06	-.37	.10	.06
Q38	.11	.06	.03	-.14	-.53	.21	-.08
Q39	.10	.06	.04	-.01	-.62	.18	-.12
Q40	.13	.08	.09	00	-.68	.11	-.12
Q41	-.05	.04	.13	.47	-.45	.19	.14
Q42	.01	.03	.12	-.44	-.50	.13	.15
Q43	.06	.15	.13	-.45	-.39	.09	.23
Q44	.46	.02	-.01	.06	-.46	-.04	.12
Q45	.28	.05	.07	.06	-.56	-.09	.05
Q46	.11	.11	.11	-.35	-.39	-.09	.03
Q47	.40	.09	.04	-.27	-.27	.01	.09
Q48	.42	.04	.13	-.26	-.24	-.13	.19
Q49	.19	.05	.19	-.43	-.24	-.04	.14
Q50	-.04	.05	.15	-.44	-.44	.15	.19
Q51	.46	.01	.10	-.16	-.29	00	.26
Q52	.04	.11	-.04	.06	-.76	-.04	-.01
Q53	.05	.07	-.04	.06	-.77	.02	-.04
Q54	.11	.63	-.06	.02	00	.11	.34
Q55	.08	.68	-.09	.07	00	.11	.28
Q56	00	.74	-.06	-.02	.03	.18	.26
Q57	.24	.57	00	.05	-.06	.10	.28
Q58	.30	.04	.14	-.04	-.20	.15	-.05
Q59	.45	.23	-.02	.02	-.11	.12	.10
Q60	-.06	-.04	-.01	.02	-.02	.91	-.05
Q61	00	-.03	-.03	.01	-.03	.92	-.05
Q62	00	00	-.08	-.01	.01	.82	.01
Q64	.65	.02	.07	-.07	-.04	.06	.04
Q65	.60	.05	.09	-.10	-.16	.09	-.01
Q66	.50	.23	.08	-.13	-.06	.04	.21
Q67	.50	.06	.04	-.08	-.16	-.07	-.09
Q68	.53	.05	.13	-.23	-.14	-.01	-.20
Q69	.69	.10	-.04	-.03	-.12	.04	-.03
Q70	.66	.06	.05	-.12	-.02	.04	-.06
Q71	.48	.35	.06	-.06	.17	.05	-.17
Q72	.53	.15	.05	-.03	-.23	-.08	-.03
Q73	.43	.07	-.02	.05	.18	.15	-.15
Q74	.39	.27	.07	-.03	.30	.12	.01
Q75	.55	.27	.03	-.07	.15	.07	-.01
Q76	.22	.61	-.01	-.01	.13	.16	.13
Q77	.32	.61	-.03	.01	.13	.01	-.17
Q78	.40	.42	.14	-.08	.01	.10	-.02
Q86	.02	.03	-.74	.04	-.03	-.09	-.06
Q87	-.09	.05	-.68	.13	-.13	.06	-.09
Q88	-.10	.11	-.74	.06	-.05	-.02	-.09

Table 5.48 (continued)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Q89	-.02	.07	-.75	.09	-.02	.07	-.11
Q90	-.03	.06	-.81	.04	.04	.05	-.09
Q91	-.17	.04	-.75	.06	-.13	.04	-.12
Q92	-.03	-.10	-.59	.05	00	00	-.09
Q93	-.10	-.07	-.71	-.03	-.02	.08	-.05
Q94	-.06	-.14	-.69	.05	-.16	-.03	-.15
Q95	-.07	-.31	-.48	-.04	-.33	-.03	-.21
Q96	.08	-.27	-.69	.04	-.21	-.09	-.17
Q97	.04	.06	-.63	-.05	.06	.04	.04
Q98	-.06	-.19	-.71	-.08	-.11	-.07	-.06
Q99	.08	-.06	-.73	-.06	.10	.10	.11
Q100	.04	.03	-.76	-.08	.09	.01	.13
Q101	-.07	-.01	-.67	-.09	-.09	-.06	-.02
Q102	.18	-.07	-.85	.12	.02	.02	.01
Q103	.15	.09	-.77	-.03	.13	-.07	.18
Q104	.03	.04	-.79	-.10	.22	00	.17
Q105	.04	.08	-.78	-.04	.17	.01	.20
Q106	00	.13	-.77	-.07	.03	-.10	.21
Q108	-.09	.83	.02	.02	.02	.07	.23
Q109	.09	.73	.03	.01	.05	.01	-.32
Q110	.07	.69	-.04	.09	-.07	-.01	.16
Q111	-.03	.63	.08	-.14	-.22	-.06	.02
Q112	-.09	.87	-.06	.01	-.01	.08	.20
Q113	.10	.69	.07	-.06	.09	00	-.31
Q114	-.01	.71	-.03	.07	-.04	-.10	-.04
Q115	.08	.78	00	.01	-.10	-.01	-.08
Q116	-.06	.72	.06	-.01	-.06	.06	-.12
Q117	-.06	.88	00	-.02	-.05	.02	.13
Q118	.16	.72	-.03	00	.07	00	-.35
Q119	.07	.44	.06	-.03	-.03	.02	-.34
Q120	-.04	.75	.03	-.07	-.02	.02	-.12
Q121	-.02	.89	-.05	.01	-.02	.01	.12
Q122	.20	.65	.01	-.05	.10	-.02	-.41
Q123	.06	.71	.04	.02	-.05	.04	-.03
Q124	.02	.73	.11	-.08	-.02	.01	-.08
Q125	-.14	.64	.03	-.14	-.15	-.10	-.05
Q127	-.15	-.40	-.15	.11	-.19	-.02	-.31
Q128	-.14	-.30	-.27	.13	-.09	-.06	-.28
Q129	-.17	-.40	-.16	.08	-.11	-.03	-.32

In Factor 1 we observe the same combination of items from job embeddedness and job resources. The loadings indicate that the complete JE: organisational fit subscale combined with three items from the JE: organisational sacrifice subscale (Q72, 73, 75), and with four items from the JR; growth opportunities (Q30, 31, 33, 34) subscale, as well as item Q59 from JR: Advancement. Items Q29,

32, 35, 36, 44, 48, 51, 71 and 78 loaded on two factors and could be regarded as ambiguous. After inspection of the loadings the researcher, however, decided to retain Items Q32, Q51 and Q74.

Factor 1 will be named job embeddedness as it predominantly reflects organisational fit and sacrifice as mentioned before. The heterotrait-monotrait ratio also indicated that job resources and job embeddedness are not independent constructs.

In Factor 2 (satisfaction with benefits) we observe a combination of job resources, and more specifically, the advancement subscale of job resources (Item Q54-Q57), JE: organisational sacrifice (Items Q76-77) dealing with compensation and benefits, as well as virtually the complete satisfaction with pay scale (Items Q108-118 and 120-125). Items Q119, Q127 and Q129 load on two different factors. These items could be considered ambiguous. After inspection of the loadings, however, the researcher decided to retain Item Q119. Factor 2 is therefore called satisfaction with benefits as the four items of job resources (advancement) deal with financial satisfaction, which explains the association with satisfaction with pay. The two items of organisational sacrifice also speak to compensation and benefits (Item Q76 – “I’m well compensated for the level of performance”; Item Q77 – “The benefits are good on this job”).

Factor 3 will not be renamed as it overlaps completely with supportive organisational climate (Items Q86-106). Item Q95 loads onto three different factors but the researcher decided to retain it.

We observe that Factor 4 (transformational leadership) overlaps completely with the current scale (Items Q9-Q27) and therefore would not be renamed. A number of items loaded onto Factor 4 and 5 and could be regarded as ambiguous. These items relate to the manager/supervisor elements (Items Q41-43, Q48-50) of job resources. After inspection of the loadings the researcher decided to retain items Q43 and Q49.

Factor 5 is renamed social support as it represents a selection out of the job resources constructs, specifically organisational support (Items Q 45) and social support (Items Q38-40; 52-53). In this instance we see organisational support as part of social support. Items Q42 and Q46 loaded on two factors and could be considered ambiguous but were retained after inspection of the loadings.

Factor 6 (Job insecurity) loadings was chiefly represented by Job Resources: Job insecurity items (Item Q 60-62) and growth opportunity (Item Q 32), which speaks to the advancement subscale. Factor 6 will therefore be named job insecurity.

Factor 7 does not represent a strong and unambiguous factorial structure and represents double loadings in the case of growth opportunity (Item Q29), satisfaction with pay structure (Item Q 119) and lastly intention to quit (Items Q 127 and129), speaking to the likelihood of searching for another job. Factor 7 will be named intention to quit. The researcher decided to retain the original three items

of the intention to quit scale in order to ensure that it meets the minimum requirement of at least three indicator items.

The exploratory factor analysis of the overarching measurement model at item level has revealed a number of interesting overlaps between the constructs, especially between the constructs of job embeddedness and job resources, as originally defined. These overlaps point in the direction of a more encompassing meta-theoretical conceptualisation of job resources. This analysis has also allowed reconceptualising the factors and creating a new measurement model on the basis of the factorially derived constructs. The psychometric properties of the factorially derived constructs and their measurement scales will be presented next. This section is undertaken in the exploratory mode of the current study with the full awareness that a proper evaluation of the proposed factorially derived constructs would necessitate evaluating it on a third sample of respondents.

5.15. SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF THE FACTORIALLY DERIVED SCALES

The following section presents a summary of the reliability analyses of the factorially derived scales.

Table 5.49
Summary statistics of factorially derived scales

Scale	N of Items	Mean	StDv.	Average Inter-item correlations	Alpha
TL	21	81.21	18.97	.48	.95
JE	18	74.26	16.22	.46	.94
SS	8	45.78	7.80	.49	.88
SwB	24	71.05	21.82	.54	.96
JS	3	13.74	4.74	.76	.90
SOC	21	52.25	16.16	.51	.95
ITQ	3	8.51	3.90	.77	.90

*Note.*TL =transformational leadership, JE= job embeddedness, SS = social support, SwB= satisfaction with benefits, JS=job insecurity, SOC= supportive organisational climate & ItQ = intention to quit.

The twenty-one-item scale measuring transformational leadership has an overall reliability coefficient with a Cronbach alpha of .95. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .48, which meets the criterion of the inter-item correlation needing to be >.30 (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 81.21, with a standard deviation of 18.97.

The eighteen-item scale measuring job embeddedness has an overall reliability coefficient with a Cronbach alpha of .93. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .46, which is >.30, as per the inter-item correlations criterion (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 74.25, with a standard deviation of 16.21.

The eight-item scale measuring social support has an overall reliability coefficient with a Cronbach alpha of .87. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as good. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .49, which is >.30, as per the inter-item correlations criterion (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 45.76, with a standard deviation of 7.80.

The twenty-four-item scale measuring satisfaction with benefits has an overall reliability coefficient with a Cronbach alpha of .96. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .54, which is >.30, as per the inter-item correlations criterion (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 71.05, with a standard deviation of 21.82.

The three-item scale measuring job insecurity has an overall reliability coefficient with a Cronbach alpha of .90. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .76, which is >.30, as per the inter-item correlations criterion (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 13.74, with a standard deviation of 4.73.

The twenty-one-item scale measuring transformational leadership has an overall reliability coefficient with a Cronbach alpha of .95. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .51, which is >.30, as per the inter-item correlations criterion (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 52.25, with a standard deviation of 16.16.

The three-item scale measuring intention to quit has an overall reliability coefficient with a Cronbach alpha of .90. According to George and Mallery (2003), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is apparent that none of the items would increase the reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .77, which is >.30, as per the inter-item correlations criterion (Den Hartog et al., 1997). The mean is 8.51, with a standard deviation of 3.89.

Table 5.50 presents the correlations between the factorially derived constructs.

According to Pallant (2001), correlations above .50 are considered high and adequate as indicators of positive correlation. On the other hand, correlations around .20 are considered low (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In Table 5.50 the path coefficients, which are the most important because they indicate the strength of relationships between the latent variables, are presented. Echoing the rule of thumb provided by Pallant (2001), all relationships with a p-value greater than .05 can be considered significant (Hair et al, 2014). Table 5.50 presents the path coefficients without organisational links.

Table 5.50
Intercorrelations between factorially derived constructs

	Variable 1	Variable 2	Pearson	Pearson p-value	# Cases
1	TL	Job Embeddedness	**.52**	<.01	270
2	TL	Social Support	**.47**	<.01	270
3	TL	Satisfaction with Benefits	.27	<.01	270
4	TL	Job insecurity	.15	.01	270
5	TL	Supportive Org Climate	-.24	<.01	270
6	TL	ITQ	-.33	<.01	270
7	Job Embeddedness	Social Support	**.57**	<.01	270
8	Job Embeddedness	Satisfaction with Benefits	**.58**	<.01	270
9	Job Embeddedness	Job insecurity	.33	<.01	270
10	Job Embeddedness	Supportive Org Climate	-.35	<.01	270
11	Job Embeddedness	ITQ	**-.49**	<.01	270
12	Social Support	Satisfaction with Benefits	.27	<.01	270
13	Social Support	Job insecurity	.21	<.01	270
14	Social Support	Supportive Org Climate	-.25	<.01	270
15	Social Support	ITQ	-.21	<.01	270
16	Satisfaction with benefits	Job insecurity	.20	<.01	270
17	Satisfaction with benefits	Supportive Org Climate	-.25	<.01	270
18	Satisfaction with benefits	ITQ	**-.55**	<.01	270
19	Job insecurity	Supportive Org Climate	-.06	.35	270
20	Job insecurity	ITQ	-.13	.04	270
21	Supportive Org Climate	ITQ	.36	<.01	270

In Table 5.50 we observe that all the relationships are significant, based on the criteria presented by Pallant (2001). The strongest of the correlations are between job embeddedness and satisfaction with benefits, job embeddedness and social support, satisfaction with pay and intention to quit, transformational leadership and job embeddedness, and job embeddedness and intention to quit. Amongst the more moderate correlated relationships are transformational leadership and intention to quit, job embeddedness and supportive organisational climate, and social support and supportive organisational climate. Relationships that are correlated more on the weaker side include job insecurity and intention to quit, transformational leadership and job insecurity, and job insecurity and supportive organisational climate, for example.

5.15.1. Composite reliability of the new latent measurement model

Composite reliability in this case determines how well the latent variables measure manifest variables where a value greater than .70 would be deemed acceptable. Table 5.51 provides the composite reliability for the new latent model with the exclusion of organisational links, based on the EFA conducted at item level.

Table 5.51
Composite reliability

Latent Variable	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%
ITQ	.936	.918	.950
Job insecurity	.936	.913	.952
Job Embeddedness	.945	.933	.953
Satisfaction with Benefits	.967	.960	.973
Social Support	.900	.865	.923
Supportive Org Climate	.958	.947	.966
Trans Leadership	.955	.942	.963

5.15.2. Average variance extracted (AVE)

Table 5.52 presents the AVE and the rule of thumb is that the value greater than .50 indicates that the construct explains more than half of the variance of its indicators (Riou et al., 2016).

Table 5.52
Average variance extracted in the new latent model

	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%
ITQ	.829	.79	.863
Job insecurity	.829	.778	.869
Job Embeddedness	.493	.444	.536
Satisfaction with Benefits	.554	.507	.601
Social Support	.531	.452	.600
Supportive Org Climate	.524	.465	.580
Trans Leadership	.503	.441	.554

All the values are greater than .50, except for job embeddedness with a value of .493, which could be seen as acceptable.

5.15.3. Discriminant validity

As previously mentioned, the aim of discriminant validity is to determine whether the constructs that are not related in the model are truly distinct (Riou et al., 2016). Table 5.53 presents the HTMT ratio, which indicates whether a construct is distinct or not.

Table 5.53
Discriminant validity (Hetero-mono trait ratio)

	From	To	Original Sample (O)	2.50 %	97.50%	Discri-minate
Job insecurity -> ITQ	Job insecurity	ITQ	.142	.046	.293	Yes
Job Embeddedness -> ITQ	Job Embeddedness	ITQ	.541	.427	.649	Yes
Job Embeddedness -> Job insecurity	Job Embeddedness	Job insecurity	.353	.196	.497	Yes
Satisfaction with Benefits -> ITQ	Satisfaction with Benefits	ITQ	.585	.480	.685	Yes
Satisfaction with Benefits -> Job insecurity	Satisfaction with Benefits	Job insecurity	.206	.102	.345	Yes
Satisfaction with Benefits -> Job Embeddedness	Satisfaction with Benefits	Job Embeddedness	.610	.518	.695	Yes
Social Support -> ITQ	Social Support	ITQ	.232	.148	.356	Yes
Social Support -> Job insecurity	Social Support	Job insecurity	.228	.117	.366	Yes
Social Support -> Job Embeddedness	Social Support	Job Embeddedness	.612	.522	.692	Yes
Social Support -> Satisfaction with Benefits	Social Support	Satisfaction with Benefits	.292	.195	.403	Yes
Supportive Org Climate -> ITQ	Supportive Org Climate	ITQ	.385	.252	.522	Yes
Supportive Org Climate -> Job insecurity	Supportive Org Climate	Job insecurity	.080	.075	.218	Yes
Supportive Org Climate -> Job Embeddedness	Supportive Org Climate	Job Embeddedness	.370	.241	.533	Yes
Supportive Org Climate -> Satisfaction with Benefits	Supportive Org Climate	Satisfaction with Benefits	.270	.175	.442	Yes
Supportive Org Climate - Social Support	Supportive Org Climate	Social Support	.279	.176	.431	Yes
Trans Leadership -> ITQ	Trans Leadership	ITQ	.354	.237	.470	Yes
Trans Leadership - Job insecurity	Trans Leadership	Job insecurity	.159	.096	.299	Yes
Trans Leadership -> Job Embeddedness	Trans Leadership	Job Embeddedness	.537	.436	.638	Yes
Trans Leadership -> Satisfaction with Benefits	Trans Leadership	Satisfaction with Benefits	.271	.177	.401	Yes
Trans Leadership -> Social Support	Trans Leadership	Social Support	.490	.387	.606	Yes
Trans Leadership -> Supportive Org Climate	Trans Leadership	Supportive Org Climate	.254	.167	.407	Yes

Based on the analysis of Table 5.53 all the items are now distinct from one another, which is a different outcome to what we observed before. Appendix L presents the outer loadings and after the removal of organisational links and performing an EFA at item level the resultant measurement model has improved and all the outer loadings are satisfactory and significant.

According to Hair et al. (2014), the adjusted coefficient of determination (R^2) takes into account the number of predictor constructs and they express the opinion that this statistic is particularly useful when comparing models with different predictor constructs.

Table 5.54 presents the values of the adjusted coefficient of determination for the analysis performed at item level and without organisational links.

Table 5.54
Structural structural model R^2

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
ITQ	0.407	0.394
Job Embeddedness	0.611	0.604
Supportive Org Climate	0.141	0.132

According to Hair et al (2014), the amount of variance of the endogenous constructs in the structural model is represented and explained by the R^2 values. An interesting observation is that 60 per cent of the variance in job embeddedness is explained by the model, while only 40 per cent of the variance in intention to quit is explained by the model.

Generally, R^2 values (for targeted constructs) of .20 to .49 are considered weak, while .50 to .74 are considered moderate and .75 and above are considered substantial.

Prior to assessing the structural model, it is prudent to test for collinearity, which is considered as a key step since the estimation of the path coefficients is based on OLS regressions. Thus, it may be biased if multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2012) is present. Table 5.55 below presents the multicollinearity for the new latent model.

Table 5.55
Multicollinearity

	ITQ	Job Embeddedness	Supportive Org Climate
ITQ			
Advancement	1.127	1.076	
Job Embeddedness	2.573		
Satisfaction with Benefits	1.562	1.196	1.117
Social Support	1.688	1.462	1.419
Supportive Org Climate	1.205	1.166	
Trans Leadership	1.581	1.451	1.416

Again, no significant change is observed by the removal of organisational links and performing an analysis at item level. Therefore, considering the above values no problem has been found based on the variance inflation factor (VIF) values, as all values are below 5, according to the rule of thumb.

5.15.4. Goodness-of-fit of the new latent structural model

Figure 5.9 below presents the new latent structural model which emerged from the exploratory factor analysis.

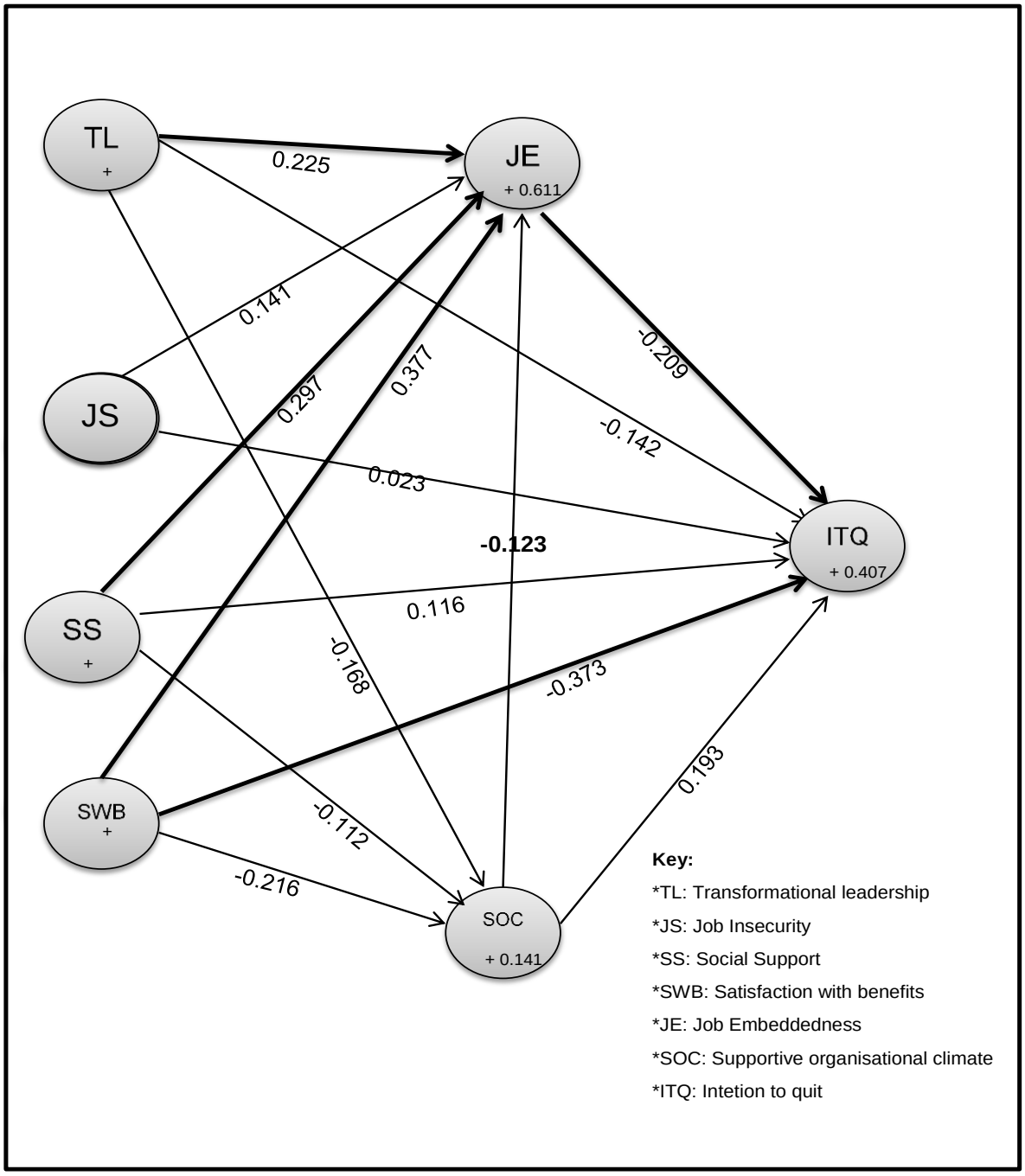


Figure 5.9: New latent model – factorially derived model (Model 3)

The preceding results of models 1 and 2 prompted the researcher to consider an EFA at the item level, as the primary purpose of an EFA is to arrive at a granular conceptual understanding of a set of measured variables by assessing the number and nature of common factors required to account for the pattern of correlations among the measured variables (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

Table 5.56 presents the path coefficients, which are the most important because they indicate the strength of relationships between the latent variables. The rule of thumb here is that all relationships with a p-value greater than .05 can be considered significant (Hair et al, 2014). Table 5.56 presents the path coefficients of the new latent model (without organisational links), which is also referred to as the factorially derived model.

Table 5.56
Path coefficients (CI)

	From	To	Original Sample (O)	2.50 %	97.5 0%	Significant from CI	P-Value of T-test
Job insecurity -> ITQ	Job insecurity	ITQ	.023	-.083	.131	No	.66
Job insecurity -> Job Embeddedness	Job insecurity	Job Embedded	.141	.044	.234	Yes	.01
Job Embeddedness -> ITQ	Job Embeddedness	ITQ	-.209	-.388	-.059	Yes	.01
Satisfaction with Benefits -> ITQ	Satisfaction with Benefits	ITQ	-.373	-.499	-.251	Yes	.00
Satisfaction with Benefits -> Job Embeddedness	Satisfaction with Benefits	Job Embedded	.377	.286	.455	Yes	.00
Satisfaction with Benefits -> Supportive Org Climate	Satisfaction with Benefits	Supportive Org Climate	-.216	-.367	-.077	Yes	.00
Social Support -> ITQ	Social Support	ITQ	.116	-.028	.245	No	.09
Social Support -> Job Embeddedness	Social Support	Job Embedded	.297	.198	.388	Yes	.00
Social Support-> Supportive Org Climate	Social Support	Supportive Org Climate	-.112	-.285	.062	No	.22
Supportive Org Climate -> ITQ	Supportive Org Climate	ITQ	.193	.060	.322	Yes	.00
Supportive Org Climate -> Job Embeddedness	Supportive Org Climate	Job Embeddedness	-.123	-.209	-.048	Yes	.00
Trans Leadership -> ITQ	Trans Leadership	ITQ	-.142	-.258	-.005	Yes	.03
Trans Leadership -> Job Embeddedness	Trans Leadership	Job Embeddedness	.225	.124	.313	Yes	.00
Trans Leadership -> Supportive Org Climate	Trans Leadership	Supportive Org Climate	-.168	-.316	-.014	Yes	.03

Table 5.56 above indicates which of the paths in the new latent structure model (Model 3), also referred to as the factorially derived model, is statistically significant. According to Hair et al. (2017), path coefficients possess standard values between -1 and +1. They acknowledge that the values might be larger but for the most part fall within this range. Path coefficients that are close to +1 indicate a strong relationship and the same would apply for when a path coefficient is close to -1. That too would indicate a strong relationship. Estimated path coefficients that are closer to 0 indicate a weaker relationship and very low values are usually not significantly different from zero. No

statistically significant relationship (r = .023, p = .66) was found between job insecurity and intention to quit.

- A statistically significant relationship (r = .141, p = .01) was found between job insecurity and job embeddedness.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = -.209, p = .01) was found between job embeddedness and intention to quit.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = -.373, p = .00) was found between satisfaction with benefits and intention to quit.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = .377, p = .00) was found between satisfaction with benefits and job embeddedness.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = -.216, p = .00) was found between satisfaction with benefits and supportive organisational climate.
- No statistically significant relationship (r = .166, p = .09) was found between social support and intention to quit.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = .297, p = .00) was found between social support and job embeddedness.
- No statistically significant relationship (r = -.112, p = .22) was found between social support and supportive organisational climate.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = .193, p = .00) was found between supportive organisational climate and intention to quit.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = -.123, p = .00) was found between supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = -.142, p = .03) was found between transformational leadership and intention to quit.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = .225, p = .00) was found between transformational leadership and job embeddedness.
- A statistically significant relationship (r = -.168, p = .03) was found between transformational leadership and supportive organisational climate.

A detailed discussion of the findings is presented in Chapter 6. For the sake of completeness, the following section presents the CFA for the new latent model. The CFA information provided in this section is divided into two sections because the data is too large for the software package to handle.

5.16. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS: FACTORIALLY DERIVED MODEL (MODEL 3)

The results of both CFAs for the new latent model revealed a satisfactory fit as anticipated, as the same data was used. The latent variables included in CFA 1 were intention to quit, job embeddedness and job insecurity. Table 5.57 indicates the degrees of freedom (DF) of this model = 249; normal theory weighted least square Chi-square = 673.81; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .080; 90 per cent confidence interval for RMSEA = .072 to .87; goodness of fit index (GFI) = .98 and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .98 for the first CFA.

Table 5.57
Goodness-of-fit statistics of the new latent model (Model 3) – CFA 1

Scale	p-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
	.00	.08	.98	.98

The second CFA as presented in Table 5.58 below, included supportive organisational climate, social support, satisfaction with benefits and transformational leadership. This model was associated with degrees of freedom (DF) = 2621; normal theory weighted least square Chi-square = 6374.48; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .066; 90 per cent confidence interval for RMSEA = .063 to .068; goodness of fit index (GFI) = .96 and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = .95.

Table 5.58
Goodness-of-fit statistics of the new latent model (Model 3) – CFA 2

Scale	p-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
	.00	.066	.96	.95

According to Diamantopoulos and Siquaw (2000), the RMSEA is considered as one of the most revealing fit indications. Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen (2008) postulate that the RMSEA measures the measured model per degree of freedom based on the discrepancy found between the population covariance matrix observed and the population covariance matrix estimated. The rule of thumb provided by Hair et al. (2006) indicates that RMSEA values smaller than .05 are an indication of a good model fit, whereas values between .05 and .80 are an indication of a reasonable fit. A mediocre fit is indicated by values between .80 and .10, and values greater than .10 indicate poor fit. Based on this rule, we observed that both fits are considered reasonable.

The GFI, according to Hooper et al. (2008), measures the fit between the hypothesised model and what has been observed in the covariance matrix. They further explain that the GFI values greater than .95 and close to 1 are an indication of a good fit, which is the case for the above assessments with values .98 and .96 respectively.

Finally, the values of the AGFI were .98 and .95 respectively, which indicates a good fit in light of the rule of thumb of Hooper et al. (2008), who explain that AGFI values greater than .95 and close to 1 are an indication of a good fit. According to Hooper et al. (2008), the GFI value is influenced by the number of indicators of each latent value and the AGFI value serves to correct it. Based on the above findings, the overall fit of the latent model is acceptable.

5.17. SUMMARY

This chapter presented the findings of the quantitative phase, also referred to as Phase 3 in this study. The item analyses were presented, including the reliability coefficients of the measurement instruments that were employed. In addition, the intercorrelations were presented. Three different models were presented sequentially and were examined through the goodness-of-fit statistics (CFA) of the respective measurement models. Based on the nature if the statistical question posed, an Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed as well as PLS-based evaluations on both the measurement and structural models.

Three models surfaced and were each consecutively evaluated by being consistent in utilising the same series of statistical analyses. A new set of postulations emerged from the new latent model (Model 3) that was reviewed. The initial propositions and the newly emerged postulations will be discussed in Chapter 6, as well as the relative standing of the models and their theoretical implications (variables to include and exclude). In addition, the higher-order discussion of the path coefficient findings (hypothesis), research limitations, research recommendations and managerial recommendations will be presented.

CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The research results presented in Chapter 5 will be discussed and interpreted in this final chapter, which is geared towards answering the research initiating question posed at the beginning of the research project being: Which organisational and individual variables serve as the antecedents to intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals in South Africa. A further aim of the study was to observe the pattern of relationships between the identified variables with Generation Y IT employees within the South African context and to investigate the possible early detection of Generation Y's intention to quit.

The four objectives formulated at the beginning of the study will be discussed in this chapter. They were:

(1) to propose a conceptual model,

(2) to evaluate the theoretical model by means of qualitative methodologies and to develop a structural model explaining the intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals,

(3) to empirically evaluate the structural model developed and determine the nature of the relationships between the identified variables and intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals and lastly

(4) to make recommendations to recruiters, HR professionals, talent managers and business leaders within the software development organisations with respect to intentional and purposeful management and retention of Generation Y professionals.

The discussion will include the conclusions of the qualitative phase of the study (Phase 1), the qualities of the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments used in Phases 2 and 3, the initial structural models and the unfolding structural model, and the significance of the postulated paths between the constructs. Concluding the chapter, recommendations for managerial interventions will be offered, followed by the limitations of the study and recommendations for further research.

6.2. OBJECTIVE 1: PROPOSED THEORETICAL MODEL OF VARIABLES INFLUENCING INTENTION TO QUIT

Objective one of the study was to conduct a literature review with the research question in mind. The literature review was conducted to postulate propositions and to inform an initial theoretical model. This was to be followed by a qualitative phase which would serve the purpose of validating and refining the initial theoretical model based on the findings of the engagement with a sample of Generation Y employees in the IT industry in South Africa.

Having completed the literature review in relation to the objectives of the study and antecedents to the intention to quit especially among Generation Y IT professionals in South Africa and taking the future directions for research into consideration, it was decided that the present study would focus on six variables for the first phase of the study. These variables are transformational leadership, job resources, organisational culture and supportive organisational climate with the moderating variable, job embeddedness, and lastly, the dependent variable, intention to quit. Antecedents to intention to quit were identified from the literature reviewed and discussed in preceding sections. The researcher gave recognition to the complexity of the nomological network of variables evident in predicting intention to quit.

6.3. OBJECTIVE 2: EVALUATE MODEL WITH QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGIES

In accordance with the explanation presented in Chapter 4, the primary purpose of the qualitative phase (Phase 1) was to seek (a) confirmation that the constructs and the instruments considered for the study covered the relevant and important antecedents to the intention to quit of Generation Y professionals in the IT sector in South Africa, and (b) to determine whether there were other themes emerging from the focus group discussions that were not adequately covered by the instruments selected. These steps were considered important, given the complex nature of the South African society and the observation that Generation Y individuals do not necessarily share the same characteristics across the world. A brief discussion of the key themes that emerged from the focus groups conducted during Phase 1 is offered below.

The first question dealt with what we refer to as the “stay factor” – enquiring about what made the respondents stay with the organisation. The four key themes that emerged from this question were training and development, organisational support, organisational culture and career growth and mentorship. Here we observed that learning and development, as well as organisational support, demonstrated through the culture or climate, are important for the retention of Generation Y employees. Job resources, as previously discussed, cater for training and development, organisational support, growth opportunities, advancement and job insecurity. All the key themes emerging from the first question covered subconstructs of the job resources construct. From the perspective of training and development, there was a preference for mentorship. Mentorship is one

of the ways in which an organisation can show support to Generation Y employees. The constructs addressing the four key themes that emerged as the highest “stay factors”, in summary, were therefore identified to be congruent with the subconstructs of supportive organisational climate and job resources.

The next question focused on what the organisation could improve or change. The four key themes emerging from this question were innovation and new technology, communication, leadership and management, and creating an environment that is fun, exciting and where recreational activities are welcomed. Generation Ys seem to enjoy having fun while at work. Leadership is one of the important contributors to creating the climate and culture of an organisation or it at least sets the tone of how employees experience the organisation. For reasons discussed in Chapter 2, transformational leadership was selected as the leadership style to be examined in this study. Communication and social support, which are subconstructs of job resources, were identified as the aspects that needed to be changed or could be improved. These key themes show some similarity to the views of Martin (2005), postulating that Generation Y employees thrive on exposure to new challenges and opportunities and need managers or leaders to be well acquainted with their capabilities to stretch them to new limits. Transformational leadership is inclusive of communication and tends to provide Generation Y employees with new challenges through the subconstruct of intellectual stimulation, identified as an area for improvement. Further to this, the social support theme is covered by the job resources construct and the creation of a fun environment is considered as part of the social support element, which is also a subconstruct of job resources. The creation of a fun environment and recreational activities could also be covered by the subconstructs of job embeddedness, such as organisational fit and organisational sacrifice.

The four key themes relating to what can be improved or changed, in summary, were identified to be congruent with transformational leadership, job resources (social support), and job embeddedness (organisational fit and organisational sacrifice), as discussed above.

The determinants of intention to quit were identified as remuneration, lack of growth opportunities, change in leadership, culture or structure, not being challenged, no flexi-time, and unfair treatment, which manifested either through nepotism, racism, or favouritism. This question alerted the researcher to the importance of remuneration for this cohort. Based on this finding, the satisfaction with pay questionnaire was included. The use of the job resources questionnaire, with growth opportunities and advancement subconstructs, was supported. Transformational leadership and supportive organisational climate were chosen to address the leadership and the cultural concerns. Through leadership training and development, the issues of no flexi-time, not being challenged and unfair treatment could be addressed. The key themes that contributed to intention to quit, in summary, were identified as satisfaction with pay, transformational leadership, supportive organisational climate and job resources, as discussed above.

In describing the preferred leadership style, the following were identified as the top four preferences: (1) leaders who motivate, provide feedback and assist with growth; (2) leaders who are approachable, accessible and open to new ideas and the willingness to embrace it; (3) leaders who are trustworthy, honest, transparent, fair and who communicate well; and (4) leaders who lead by example and who are hands-on. These themes correlate with the findings of Moorthy (2014), where Generation Y indicated a preference for leaders who are knowledgeable, hardworking, determined, and who take responsibility for their actions. These traits were deemed congruent with the idealised influence subconstruct of transformational leadership style (Moorthy 2014). After analysing the various leadership styles, transformational leadership was deemed the best fit with its subconstructs, such as inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence and individualised consideration, speaking to most of the preferences identified above. For example, the need for motivation, feedback and assistance with growth are addressed by the inspirational leadership subconstruct.

In exploring the organisational culture or climate, respondents were asked to describe the culture and indicate what they liked and did not like about it. The four themes identified as what they liked were (1) the culture and its people; (2) feeling supported (supportive organisational culture); (3) flexibility; and (4) knowledge sharing. Four themes emerged of what they did not like: (1) lack of teambuilding initiatives; (2) culture; (3) office space and seating arrangements (open plan); (4) the absence of fun activities and a relaxed environment (refer to Table 3.9, 3.10 & 3.11). Job embeddedness was also relevant in terms of organisational fit, sacrifice and links, as employers are able to create environments where people feel a sense of belonging and where hygiene factors could be implemented to speak to the subconstructs and create the web to embed Generation Y employees. The constructs addressing the culture or climate themes, in summary, were identified as supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness.

The results of the qualitative phase supported the constructs that were identified (transformational leadership, job resources, supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness) and the proposed instruments selected. A new theme emerged from the process, which led to an elaboration of the conceptual model with the inclusion of the construct satisfaction with pay. The following instruments were used to measure each construct: for transformational leadership, the adapted version of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ); for job resources, the adapted Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS); for supportive organisational climate, the supportive organisational climate questionnaire; for job embeddedness, the on-the-job embeddedness questions; and finally, the three-item scale of the intention to quit questionnaire was used. For the newly added construct, satisfaction with pay, the satisfaction with pay questionnaire was used.

6.4. OBJECTIVE 3: EMPIRICALLY EVALUATE STRUCTURAL MODEL

This section presents a brief discussion of and conclusions regarding the pilot phase and the quantitative phase, in which the statistical analysis of the emerging three models is presented.

6.4.1. Phase 2 (pilot testing phase)

Phase 2 of the study, as previously discussed, was to determine whether the questionnaire met the requirement of face validity with respect to what the test sample deemed as appropriate measures of the factors influencing the intention to quit. Participants were also asked to provide feedback on the user's experience of the online questionnaire.

The respondents confirmed the appropriateness of the measuring instruments, but also proposed incentivising participants to encourage participation, which was considered and implemented. The feedback provided by the respondents included making the questionnaire more visually appealing to Generation Y, providing a comment box after each questionnaire where respondents could leave their comments if they wished to do so, and including a save button should the participant wish to come back to the questionnaire at a later stage. In response to these suggestions a save-and-exit option was included, and an incentive for respondents to encourage participation through the snowball sampling technique was implemented. A graphic designer was employed to make the questionnaire more visually appealing, a comment box was provided after each questionnaire, and gift vouchers were offered through lucky draws to increase participation in completing the questionnaire. Despite a recommendation to shorten the questionnaire, it was decided to retain all the questions, but not to add the envisioned additional Generation Y values questionnaire as the questionnaire was already lengthy. In addition to this the values questionnaire was not developed in time for its use in this study.

6.4.2. Quantitative study (Structural equation modelling)

Phase 3, which is also referred to as the quantitative phase, was the final phase of the research project. The findings of the quantitative phase were presented in Chapter 5, where three models were consecutively subjected to a series of statistical analyses. Each model was evaluated by means of goodness-of-fit statistics (confirmatory factor analysis); exploratory factor analysis appropriate to the nature of the statistical question posed, and PLS-based evaluations of the measurement and structural models were included.

6.4.2.1. Model 1

The first step in the evaluation of Model 1 was the item analysis of the various measurement instruments and their intercorrelations. All the scales were satisfactory as their alphas ranged between .75 and .92. In the case of the subscales, idealised influence of the transformational leadership scale had a marginally satisfactory alpha (.65), while the links subscale of the job

embeddedness scale appeared to be problematic, with an inter-item correlation of -.83. When the subscale was excluded from the job embeddedness scale, the alpha for job embeddedness rose from .49 to .83. Upon investigation, it appeared that the organisational links scale did not successfully measure the subdimension as defined and that it was formative in nature. The subscale organisational links was therefore considered for removal as it appeared not to correlate well with the other two subscales (organisational fit and organisational sacrifice) of job embeddedness.

Two-dimensional scatterplots mapping the correlations between the various constructs were analysed next. Most of the slopes were as anticipated; however, with the supportive organisational climate construct it was obvious that the items were negatively worded and therefore this construct had to be interpreted in the opposite direction in relation to the intersecting constructs (i.e. transformational leadership and supportive organisational climate). Based on the above findings regarding job embeddedness, scatter plots were presented for both job embeddedness including organisational links and excluding organisational links. As organisational links proved to be problematic, we compared Model 1 (with the inclusion of job embeddedness (JE)) with Model 2 (with the exclusion of it (JE_2)).

Following the two-dimensional scatterplot analysis to ensure that the relationships between the constructs were linear in nature, which is a key requirement, according to Bryman and Bell (2011), the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and goodness-of-fit analyses were conducted. A CFA was conducted on all the subscale scores (the three items of intention to quit were also used as subscales), which indicated a lack of fit with a RMSEA of .098. The general rule is that it should be smaller than .05 if the researcher wishes to demonstrate close fit. The loading of organisational links with job embeddedness showed a negative value of -.12, indicating poor fit.

Subsequently, the model was re-defined, producing Model 2, by removing organisational links, which led to a worse result in comparison to the initial results. In the re-examination, the RMSEA resulted in .10. In both cases the goodness-of-fit tests indicated that the data did not support the model and hence exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was considered and applied on the actual items and not the subscale scores. An EFA, as previously mentioned, is applied to arrive at a granular conceptual understanding of a set of measured variables by examining the number of common factors required to account for patterns of correlations amongst the variables being measured (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

An exploratory factor analysis of the initial conceptual model (Model 1) was conducted and five factors were extracted from the dataset. The oblimin rotation assists in assigning meaning to the factors and the aim is to provide simplification and clarification of the data set (Costello & Osborne, 2005) as at this stage the factors are unknown. The loadings in the case of two of the subscales of job embeddedness, organisational links and organisational sacrifice proved to be ambiguous, loading equality on two factors. More overlaps were observed between the various factors. Factor 1

appeared to represent satisfaction with general benefits and included the advancement subscale. Factor 2 overlapped entirely with transformational leadership. Factor 3 overlapped completely with supportive organisational climate. Factor 4 represents the job resources cluster, apart from advancement, but with the addition of the subdimension Organisational Fit of the Job Embeddedness scale. Factor 5 represents intention to quit. In terms of the original model it is apparent that the job embeddedness did not form a factor on its own and that organisational links had ambiguous factor loadings.

As the Exploratory Factor Analysis was not designed to test hypotheses or theories, the PLS approach to evaluating the structural and measurement models was subsequently applied. In the evaluation of the structural and measurement models of Model 1 the following observations were made. The composite reliability again indicated a lower, but satisfactory reliability for job embeddedness. In the Average Variance Extracted analysis, all the values (intention to quit, job resources, job embeddedness, supportive organisational climate, satisfaction with pay, and transformational leadership) were above .50 and were deemed acceptable. As previously mentioned, Average Variance Extracted indicates the amount of variance captured by each construct in relation to the amount of variance because of a measurement error. Since the variance explained was above .50 for all the constructs, it indicated that a sufficient amount of variance was explained in accordance with the prerequisite for proceeding with the constructs. The heterotrait-monotrait ratio confirmed the discriminant validity of all the constructs, which were found to be distinct, except for job embeddedness and job resources. In terms of the outer loadings of the model, the path between job embeddedness and organisational links was not significant.

In summary, a Goodness of fit analyses (confirmatory factor analysis – CFA) and exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were performed appropriate to the nature of the question posed, as well as PLS based evaluations of the measurement and structural models. In Model 1 we saw that all the scales were broadly satisfactory. However, the subconstruct organisational links of job embeddedness was problematic as it appeared to be formative in nature, as previously discussed. In a study conducted by Zhang, Fried, and Griffeth (2012) reviewing job embeddedness and its measurement issues, several inconsistencies were found between organisational links and turnover. They indicated that the inconsistencies may be due to how links are postulated to relate to embeddedness and turnover and they argued that the belief of Mitchell and colleagues (Mitchell et al., 2001b) that more links promote lower turnover is not necessarily true. Zhang et al. (2012) presents a different view, which entails that the opposite might be true, in that increased links could produce stress and eventually turnover. The stress could be produced by a sense of obligation as the number of connections increases in the organisation, thereby reducing quality family time during off-work hours. They therefore suggest that links are not adequately measured and that the measurement should include qualitative data and not only quantitative data. The researcher supports this as tenure in an

organisation does not necessarily mean quality links as a person who has been in an organisation for a short period of time may experience greater quality relationships than the employee who has been with the organisation for longer, and visa versa.

The CFA revealed a poor fit, which resulted in conducting an Exploratory Factor Analysis at subscale level, producing five factors as discussed in the chapter. The evaluation of the structural model revealed that the five path coefficients indicated that there were significant relationships between job resources and satisfaction with pay; job embeddedness and intention to quit; supportive organisational climate and intention to quit; satisfaction with pay and intention to quit; and finally, transformational leadership and supportive organisational climate. No multicollinearity issues were detected and the R^2 values indicated that 60 per cent of the factors influencing intention to quit were not included in Model 1.

6.4.2.2. Model 2 (excluding organisational links)

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on Model 2, excluding organisational links, which proved to be problematic, as indicated and discussed in terms of Model 1. The evaluation of Model 2 included the PLS model evaluation of both the structural and measurement models of Model 2, which excluded organisational links, since it appeared to be problematic in the evaluation of Model 1. In evaluating the measurement model of Model 2, the composite reliability, which determines how well the latent variables measure the manifest variables, improved from .74 to .94 with the removal of organisational links. Another improvement was for the Average Variance Extracted, where the amount of the variance explained by job embeddedness (without organisational links) in its indicators improved from .60 to .88 (the rule of thumb is for the Average Variance Extracted to be higher than .50). The HTMT ratio analysis indicated that, despite the removal of organisational links, job embeddedness and job resources were still not distinctively different. However, according to the outer loadings we observed an improvement in the path coefficients, with all loadings being statistically significant.

In the case of the structural model, no multicollinearity issues were detected. Five path coefficients indicated that there were significant relationships between job resources and satisfaction with pay; job embeddedness and intention to quit; supportive organisational climate and intention to quit; satisfaction with pay and intention to quit; and transformational leadership and supportive organisational climate.

Univariate tests were performed, and we observed that no moderating effects were found. We also observed that the data did not fit the measurement model according to the Confirmatory Factor Analysis. A decision was made to perform Exploratory Factor Analysis at item level and not subscale level, which produced Model 3, which is discussed below.

6.4.2.3. Model 3 (factorially derived)

Since the data did not fit the measurement models, according to the confirmatory factor analyses, a decision was made to perform the exploratory factor analysis at item level, instead of on subscale scores. The Exploratory Factor Analysis with organisational links extracted seven factors instead of five, as presented in the previous two models. The same was found when the Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted without organisational links, with also seven factors being extracted instead of five, as found in the previous analyses. The seven factors arising from the factorially derived model were named as follows: Factor 1 was named job embeddedness where an overlap between job embeddedness and job resources was found. Factor 2 was named satisfaction with benefits as an overlap between job resources (specifically advancement), job embeddedness (specifically organisational sacrifice) and satisfaction with pay was observed. Supportive organisational climate was referred to as Factor 3 as it encompassed the supportive organisational climate scale. Factor 4 encompassed the entire transformational leadership questionnaire and therefore was identified as transformational leadership. Factor 5 consisted of organisational support and social support from the job resources construct and was named social support. Factor 6 was named job insecurity as it consisted of the job security and growth opportunity items of job resources. Lastly, Factor 7 was identified as intention to quit.

The factorially derived constructs were subjected to item analysis and inter-item correlational analysis. In terms of the reliability analysis, all the statistics were deemed either excellent or good (ranging from .88 to .96). Regarding the intercorrelations, all the correlations were statistically significant, excluding job insecurity and supportive organisational climate. In the PLS analysis of the new latent model (Model 3) the following findings were observed with the assessment of the structural and measurement model. In the composite reliability analysis all the constructs were deemed highly satisfactory, with reliabilities ranging from .88 to .96 (intention to quit, job insecurity, job embeddedness, satisfaction with benefits, social support, supportive organisational climate and transformational leadership). In the Average Variance Extracted analysis all the values were greater than .50 and therefore deemed satisfactory, while the heterotrait-monotrait ratios of all the above-mentioned constructs demonstrated that they were distinct. The outer loadings of all the constructs were also deemed significant.

The evaluation of the structural model indicated that 60 per cent of the variance in job embeddedness were explained and 40 per cent for intention to quit. No multicollinearity issues were found in Model 3.

The final step in the evaluation of the measurement model of Model 3 was a CFA conducted on the new latent model. As discussed in Chapter 5, the CFA information provided for Model 3 was divided into two sections because the data was too large for the software package to handle. Both RMSEA

values for the two analyses were deemed reasonable, with the respective values for RMSEA being .80 (.072;.087) and .066 (.063;.068). RMSEA values between .05 and .08 are deemed as reflecting reasonable fit, according to Hair et al. (2006).

The following section reviews the modified propositions post Phase 1 of the study, after which the newly emerged findings resulting from Model 3 will be discussed. It should be noted that the original numbers of the propositions are used (see pp. 113-114).

6.4.2.4. Relationships in the structural model

The findings regarding the postulated paths are presented in this section. Reference is also made to literature that either supports or contradicts the research findings.

In addition to this discussion, other relationships emanating from the new latent structure that emerged through the statistical analysis of Model 3 will be discussed.

Because JE is a developing theory, finding supportive or disputative literature may prove to be a challenge. The discussion below examines the propositions, starting with the modified propositions post Phase 1 (qualitative phase), as presented in Chapter 4, including the findings that emerged from the new latent model (Model 3).

6.4.3. Proposition 1: Transformational leadership is positively correlated with job embeddedness

The postulated significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and job embeddedness (without organisational links) was supported by the coefficients obtained in Models 2 and 3. In the factorially derived model (Model 3) the path coefficient between transformational leadership and job embeddedness was .23. In terms of Cohen's effect size criterion this would indicate a "small" positive relationship. The nature of the relationship indicates that the more transformational leadership is displayed, the more likely it would be that Generation Y employees would feel embedded in the organisation. The Pearson correlation between these two variables varied between .39 and .43 in the three different models. The exclusion of organisational links led to a slight increase between Models 1 and 2.

A study conducted by Eberly, Bluhm, Guarana, and Avolio (2017) found that transformational leadership had a negative and significant indirect effect on turnover intentions through job embeddedness. Their finding also supports the findings of this study in that the results of their study showed that transformational leadership was positively and significantly correlated to job embeddedness (B= .42, p<,05) under circumstances where extreme context exposure (soldiers in the army were placed in situations where their lives where threatened) was high. Further to this

finding they found that where the extreme context exposure was low, transformational leadership did not influence job embeddedness.

Not many studies could be found where the relationship between transformational leadership and job embeddedness was studied. A study conducted by Islam, Aamir, Ahmed, and Muhammad (2012), which examined the impact of transformational leadership and transactional leadership styles on 400 students' motivation and academic performance at university level, indicated that both transactional leadership ($r=.496$, $p<.01$) and transformational leadership ($r=.499$, $p<.01$) styles were positively related with motivation. A further finding was that transformational leadership had a greater impact on the motivation of the students. This finding of Islam et al. (2012) is consistent with the findings of Marshall, Rosenbach, Deal, and Peterson (1992), Medley and Larochelle (1995), and Masi and Cooke (2000).

A study conducted by Waldman et al. (2015) found that transformational leadership can be a critical link in embedding employees, therefore supporting that there is a positive correlation between transformational leadership and job embeddedness. They further indicate that transformational leadership assists in achieving a high-quality relationship between leaders and followers and beyond that it may also reinforce retention.

Based on the current findings and the supportive literature, the postulated relationship between transformational leadership and job embeddedness is supported.

6.4.4. Proposition 2: Job resources are positively correlated with job embeddedness

The Pearson correlations indicated that the postulated relationship between job resources and job embeddedness was highly significant with the inclusion of organisational links (.70) and without organisational links (.75). The unusually high correlation increases the suspicion that the concepts are not independent. This relationship was not evaluated in terms of the path coefficients as the HTMT ratios in Models 1 and 2 indicated that the two variables were overlapping and therefore not distinct.

No studies could be found supporting or disputing the above finding. However, in a study conducted by Wheeler, Harris, and Sablynski (2012) in the United States, job embeddedness was conceptualised as a resource grounded in the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory. They found that organisational and community job embeddedness were positively and significantly correlated with job effort and job performance. They also found that, in terms of mediation, organisational job embeddedness (also referred to as on-the-job embeddedness) was positively correlated to and explained a significant amount of variance in effort. In contrast, this was not the case for community job embeddedness (also referred to as off-the-job embeddedness) (Wheeler et al., 2012).

In the factorially derived model (Model 3) we observed that social support is positively correlated with job embeddedness. Social support is deemed to be a subconstruct of job resources, consisting of social support and organisational support. The PLS path coefficient of .30 indicated that the path coefficient between social support and job embeddedness was significant.

A further finding from the factorially derived model is that job insecurity, which is also traditionally seen as a subconstruct of job resources, is positively correlated with job embeddedness. The path coefficient of .14 between job insecurity and job embeddedness was found to be significant. Feldman and Ng (2007) indicated that if individuals are unsuccessful in getting promoted internally, they would be inclined to seek opportunities for promotion in the external market.

In a study conducted by Allen and Shanock (2013), socialisation tactics was positively correlated with job embeddedness, with socialisation tactics consisting of three dimensions (content, b =.36; context, b =.11 and social b =.15). Social was deemed to be one of the dimensions of socialisation tactics. Social support refers to the nature of the interactions with experienced organisational members during social interactions – whether those interactions are positive or negative in nature and whether the organisation makes provision for experienced role models available in the organisation or not. The content dimension refers to whether the organisation provides more specific information regarding the timing and sequence of learning activities and experiences. Lastly, context refers to the environment in which the socialisation is happening, differentiating between individual or collective settings and formal or informal settings. They found that content and social related to job embeddedness and not context.

As discussed in Chapter 2 in the literature overview, we observed that social support is considered a subset of job resources, playing an extrinsic motivational role (Bakker, 2009, Hobfoll, 1989; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Also, previously mentioned in Chapter 2, Generation Y employees have high expectations of their employers in terms of benefits, flexibility and compensation (Henry, 2006) and if social support is perceived to be received it may lead to increased embeddedness. Consequently, Generation Ys are inclined to work hard and seize opportunities in the organisation in response (Henry, 2006).

From a practical perspective, when new employees are made to feel welcome and accepted, it may increase their perception of social support and their sense of belonging, thus deepening their sense of organisational fit and leading to an increased sense of job embeddedness. This suggests that social support plays a significant role in the job embeddedness of Generation Ys, more than the other subconstructs of job resources, namely growth opportunities, organisational support and advancement.

From an examination of the items of social support – “can you participate in the decision about when a piece of work must be completed?”, “Can you count on your colleagues when you come across difficulties in your work?”, “If necessary, can you ask your colleagues for help?”, “Do you get on well with your colleagues?”, “Do you have contact with your colleagues during work hours?”, “Can you have a chat with your colleagues during work hours?” – it appears important for Generation Ys to have access to assistance when needed and not to be made to feel that they are a burden to their colleagues. With open-plan working arrangements being typical of IT environments, being allowed to engage with their colleagues in a collaborative manner may increase Generation Ys’ job embeddedness and provide them with a sense of mentorship or on-the-job learning and training, which, according to Smith (2010), is the kind of learning and development usually initiated by them.

The results and body of knowledge support the proposition but indicate that job resources and job embeddedness may not be distinct constructs.

6.4.5. Proposition 4: Supportive organisational climate is positively correlated with job embeddedness

The postulated relationship between supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness was found to be significant. This was, however, only examined in Model 3, with a path coefficient of -.12. In terms of Cohen’s effect size criterion this is deemed as a “small” effect. The corresponding Pearson coefficient was -.32 in Model 1 and -.35 in Model 3. The minus sign indicates the direction of the relationship and in this case indicates that the more supported an employee feels, the more the employee would feel embedded in the organisation. The reader is reminded that the supportive organisational climate contained reversed items and therefore should be interpreted in the opposite direction. The postulated moderating effect of job embeddedness on the relationship between supportive organisational climate and intention to quit was not found to be significant.

A study conducted by Feldman and Ng (2007) indicated that it is not the number of ties, but the emotional intensity of those ties that has an impact on mobility and embeddedness. In their study they viewed job embeddedness, organisational embeddedness and occupational embeddedness as embeddedness. Relationships that have deep affections and positive emotions are likely to reduce the employees’ intentions to quit or change occupations. They also postulate that from an embeddedness perspective group cohesion brings about feelings of obligatory reciprocity and thus increases organisational links among team members. The energy exchange which is dedicated to the development of the work group relationships may also add to an employee’s sense of sacrifice when exploring external job opportunities.

As per the previous postulation, we observe that Generation Y employees who feel that they are in a supportive organisation are likely to feel more embedded. More research would be required;

perhaps investigating the impact of Generation Y value endorsement on supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness would offer a deeper understanding of this link.

Although the literature is sparse regarding this relationship, the indications seem to support the postulated relationship.

6.4.6. Proposition 6–8: Job embeddedness will be negatively correlated to turnover intentions

The subdimension of organisational links has proven to be problematic since it appears to be a formative measure. The measure of organisational links was therefore removed from the model as it presented various problems in the measurement model.

The Pearson correlation pertaining to the relationship between job embeddedness (including organisational links) and intention to quit in Model 1 was -.51, while in Model 2 (without organisational links) it was -.54, in the factorially derived model, it was -.49. The path coefficient in Model 1 (including organisational links) was -.198, while the path coefficient in Model 2 was -.201, and in Model 3 it was -.21. The negative sign indicates a negative relationship between job embeddedness and intention to quit, which means that the more embedded an employee is, the less likely he or she would be inclined to leave the organisation.

The above findings are consistent with the findings of Mitchell et al. (2001b), where job embeddedness was negatively correlated with employee intent to leave and turnover. Similarly, the findings of Besich (2005) indicated that there is a negative correlation between job embeddedness and intention to quit; in addition, the findings showed that job embeddedness has greater predictive power in determining intention to quit compared to the traditional turnover.

The items of the subscale for organisational links that appeared to be problematic were the following: “How long have you been in your current position?”; “How long have you worked for the organisation?”; “How long have you worked in the industry? (Information Technology)”; “How many co-workers are highly dependent on you?”; “How many work teams are you on?”; and “How many committees are you on?”.

The researcher believes that tenure in position, organisation or industry, as well as being part of committees or teams does not speak to the link aspect of embeddedness. Further investigation of this aspect is required; particularly focusing on the Generation Y workforce and what causes them to stick to the job and organisation.

The reader is reminded that this study examined only on-the-job embeddedness, which excluded community links. A recommendation for future research would be to include off-the-job

embeddedness, which would be inclusive of community links. Another consideration would be to look at a qualitatively orientated instrument for the measurement of organisational links, instead of a factually orientated instrument as was used in this study. The recommendation regarding the inclusion of qualitative questions is supported by the study conducted by Zhang et al. (2012) as previously discussed. Further to this recommendation they postulate that more links in the organisation do not necessarily equate to a higher level of embeddedness and a decrease in turnover. On the contrary: more links might result in higher levels of stress due to feeling obligated to attend social events with colleagues and bosses, thus reducing quality time with family. They also indicate that there is an opportunity to reconsider the structural characteristics of links. The structural characteristics referred to by Zhang et al. (2012) are size, strength, range, network density, centrality, network constraint, and structural equivalence. They postulate that the structural characteristics of links have differential effects on organisational attachments. For example, Morrison (2002) showed that the socialisation of newcomers' organisational commitment increased based on the network size, strength, range and status of the links they experienced. In studies conducted by Murphy and Hom (2008), a social network approach was used to elucidate the structural characteristic of organisational links in job embeddedness. They created a network including two types of network characteristics, namely the affective strengths of links (referring to the quality of links) and the degree of closure (referring to the extent to which everyone knows everyone in the network). Zhang et al. (2012) indicate that future studies should continue with the refinement of the conceptualisation of links in accordance with the approach of Murphy and Hom (2008).

Another concern expressed by Zhang et al. (2012) regarding organisational links is that certain items in the measurement of organisational links might reduce the predictive strength of links. They postulate that the three items pertaining to organisational tenure, the duration of the current job position, and industrial experience do not coincide with the job embeddedness theory. They suggest that in some circumstances industrial experience could in fact increase turnover, as more experienced employees become more marketable and therefore have a greater number of alternative opportunities. Whilst according to the JE theory these three items should be negatively correlated with turnover, Zhang et al. (2012) infer that industrial experience may in fact be positively rather than negatively correlated with turnover.

It is therefore safe to conclude that there is enough evidence to show that job embeddedness is negatively correlated with intention to quit, but not as strongly as anticipated. In fact the nomological network succeeds in predicting the stay factor exceptionally well, but to a lesser extent the intention to quit.

6.4.7. Proposition 9: Satisfaction with pay is positively correlated with job embeddedness

The postulated relationship between satisfaction with pay and job embeddedness was found to be significant in Model 1 (organisational links included) with a Pearson correlation of .57.

In the factorially derived model (Model 3) the relationship between the newly defined latent construct of satisfaction with benefits and job embeddedness was supported by a significant PLS path coefficient of .38.

No studies were found to support or dispute the above findings regarding the relationship between satisfaction with pay and job embeddedness. This again speaks to the gap in the body of knowledge relating to job embeddedness. One study relating to client embeddedness, satisfaction with pay and intention to leave indicated that client embeddedness explained almost a quarter of employee intention to leave and found that the greater the client embeddedness, the lower the intention to leave (Treuren & Frankish, 2014). The researchers described client embeddedness as a dimension of embeddedness based on the attachment theory of embeddedness. They defined client embeddedness as follows:

> *…attachment arises as a consequence of the relationship that exists between the employee and the beneficiaries of the employee's work. In this form of embeddedness, a relationship can exist between the employee and the recipients of the employee's work effort – clients, customers, patients, or students – and this relationship leads to some form of greater attachment between the employee and the employing organisation* (Treuren & Frankish, 2014, p. 8).

In addition, they found that client embeddedness moderates the relationship between pay satisfaction and the intention to leave. Employees who possess high levels of client embeddedness are less inclined to leave, compared to employees who have a lesser degree of client embeddedness (Treuren & Frankish, 2014).

According to Feldman and Ng (2007), the compensation policies of organisations affect employee mobility and embeddedness. They indicate that if an organisation implements a "winner takes it all" or "star" reward programme, a handful of high performing individuals may become embedded because of significant pay, whereas others may have less incentive to stay. Feldman and Ng (2007) add that the structure of pension and insurance benefits may also influence employees' mobility and embeddedness. Especially for those in their late careers, the perceived lack of adequate retirement benefits may fail to embed people in their work. For the Generation Y employees this may not be an immediate concern, however.

Based on the above findings the proposition is partially supported. More research is required to fully support the proposition.

6.4.8. Proposition 10: The relationship between transformational leadership and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness

The Pearson correlations indicated that Transformational Leadership has a statistically significant correlation with the Intention To Quit (Model 1 = -.31; Model 3 = -.33), while the relevant path coefficients were not significant in Models 1 and 2 (.093), but significant in the factorially derived Model 3 (-.14). The correlations between Transformational Leadership and Job Embeddedness were also significant (Model 1 = .39; Model 3 = .52), while the relevant path coefficient in Model 3 was .225 and significant. The correlations between Job Embeddedness and Intention To Quit were -.51 (Model 1) and -.49 (Model 3) respectively, and the relevant path coefficients were -.198 (Model 1), -.201 (Model 2) and -.21 (Model 3).

The univariate test for moderation effects indicated, however, that the relationship between Transformational Leadership and Intention To Quit was not moderated by JE.

Contrary to the above finding, Eberly et al. (2017) found that in extreme context exposure (ECE) there is an interaction where transformational leadership has a negative and significant indirect impact on turnover intentions through job embeddedness.

A study conducted in Malaysia investigating the impact of reward and transformational leadership on the intention to quit of Generation Y employees in the oil and gas industry found that transformational leadership had a significant negative relationship with intention to quit (Jauhar, Ting, & Rahim, 2017).

In a study conducted in Indian small and medium IT enterprises focusing on examining the effects of transformational leadership on turnover intentions, it was found that transformational leadership generated higher levels of psychological empowerment and trust amongst employees, which in turn led to an increase in commitment levels, thus decreasing turnover intentions (Mittal, 2016).

Leadership styles play a pivotal role in the decision-making process of employees regarding whether to stay or leave organisations (Doh, Strumpf, & Tymon, 2011; Gill, Mathur, Sharma, & Bhutani, 2011), and according to Mittal (2016) research supports the negative relationship that exists between transformational leadership and turnover intentions, supporting the above finding.

Reflection on the leadership style preferences of Generation Y, as discussed in Chapter 2 and indicated in Table 2.1, leads one to discover that autonomy is important for Generation Y employees. Mittal (2016) found that transformational leadership has a positive and significant correlation with psychological empowerment, suggesting that transformational leaders foster employees'

psychological empowerment and thereby create an autonomous work environment. It can therefore be inferred that transformational leadership would have a negative impact on turnover intentions of Generation Ys if they felt psychologically empowered, as highlighted in the study of Mittal (2016).

Supporting the above findings, a multi-level investigation of leadership and turnover behaviours in China revealed that transformational leadership through quit intentions predicts actual turnover. Further to this, researchers found that employees who are led by transformational leaders are less likely to act on their quit intentions as the transformational leadership style weakens the quit intentions and reduces the eventual turnover (Waldman et al., 2015).

Based on the above findings the proposition is at least partially supported by the evidence in literature, despite the non-significant research results of the current study. Further research is necessary as organisational links may have compromised the finding regarding the moderation effect.

6.4.9. Proposition 11: The relationship between job resources and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness

The Pearson correlation between JR and ITQ in Model 1 was -.44, while the relevant path coefficients in Models 1 and 2 were insignificant (-.068 and -.06 respectively). The correlation between JR and JE was .70 in Model 1 and the path coefficient in Model 3 was -.21. In the case of JE and ITQ the correlations were-.51 (Model 1) and -.49 (Model 3), and the relevant path coefficients were -.198 (Model1), -.201 (Model 2), and -.209 (Model 3). The results of the current study also indicate that JE did not moderate the relationship between JR and ITQ.

A study conducted by Bergiel et al. (2009) examined human resource practices, job embeddedness and intention to quit, with the purpose of testing whether job embeddedness served as a mediator of the relationship between human resource practices and employees' intention to quit. The human resource practices measured were compensation, supervisor support, growth opportunity and training. These practices coincide with the subconstructs of job resources, namely growth opportunities, advancement, social support and organisational support. In the study conducted by Bergiel et al. (2009), they found that job embeddedness fully mediated the relationship between compensation and growth opportunities, which is interesting as growth opportunities is a subconstruct of job resources. A further finding in their study is that job embeddedness partially mediated supervisor support and did not mediate training in relation to intention to quit.

No other studies could be found that looked specifically at the moderating effects of job embeddedness on the relationship between job resources and intention to quit. The above proposition is partially supported by the available literature, but further investigation is recommended.

6.4.10. Proposition 12: The relationship between supportive organisational climate and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness

Supportive organisational climate was significantly correlated with intention to quit with a Pearson correlation of .34 in Model 1 and .36 in the factorially derived Model 3, while the relevant path coefficients were .211 and .193. Due to the supportive organisational climate scale having reversed items, it needs to be interpreted in the opposite direction, as previously explained. In the case of the relationship between supportive organisational climate and job embeddedness the Pearson correlation for Model 1 was -.32 and for Model 3 -.35, while the path coefficient in the case of Model 3 was .297. In the case of job embeddedness and intention to quit the correlations were -.51 (Model 1) and -.49 (Model 3), and the relevant path coefficients were -.198 (Model 1), -.201 (Model 2), and -.209 (Model 3).

The results of the current study also indicate that job embeddedness did not moderate the relationship between supportive organisational climate and intention to quit.

A study conducted by Wayne, Shore, and Linden (1997) supports the obtained results in that perceived organisational support was negatively correlated with intention to quit. Likewise, studies conducted by Guzzo, Noonan, and Elron (1994) found that an employee who views an employer to be low on support is very likely to look for an alternative opportunity, hoping to find an employer who could offer greater support. No studies could be found disputing the negative correlation between supportive organisational climate and intention to quit.

The results support the expected relationships between the relevant pairs of variables, but not the postulated moderation effect.

6.4.11. Proposition 13: The relationship between satisfaction with pay and intention to quit is moderated by job embeddedness

The Pearson correlation between SP and intention to quit was -.63 in Model 1 and -.55 in Model 3 (satisfaction with benefits), while the relevant path coefficients were -.272 (Model 1), -.275 (Model 2), and -.373 (Model 3). The correlation between SP and JE was .57 in Model 1 and .58 in Model 3 (satisfaction with benefits), while the path coefficient in Model 3 was .377. In the case of JE and intention to quit the correlations were -.51 (Model 1) and -.49 (Model 3), and the relevant path coefficients were -.198 (Model 1), -.201 (Model 2), and -.209 (Model 3). The results of the current study, however, indicate that JE did not moderate the relationship between SP/benefits and intention to quit.

As with the social support construct, specific studies on satisfaction with benefits are sparse. Most studies explore satisfaction with pay instead, of which benefits would be a subset. In a study conducted by Jung and Yoon (2015), pay satisfaction was explored and benefits was one of the

constructs that included level of pay, pay structure and pay raise. They found that pay structure (-.333), pay level (-.232), pay raise (-.158), and benefits (-.134) had negative relationships with the employees' intention to quit. This is consistent with the results of this study.

In a study conducted by Shields, Scott, Bishop, and Goelzer (2012), satisfaction with pay was negatively correlated with intention to quit, supporting the findings above. In another study, DeConinck and Stilwell (2004) found that pay satisfaction had a direct influence on turnover intentions. This finding is consistent with research conducted by Robyn and Du Preez (2013) in a South African context where remuneration was negatively correlated with intention to quit. Tekleab, Bartol, and Liu (2005) believe, based on their findings, that employees' dissatisfaction with pay could be a critical cause of employee turnover.

Considering the historic context of South Africa, as discussed in Chapter 1, the demographics of the current respondents, who consisted of 78 per cent Black respondents (which includes the Indian and Coloured population), should be noted. Feldman and Ng (2007) refer to the mobility of historically disadvantaged groups and postulates that social and legal factors appear to have an impact on the mobility of employees through the social and legal policies, such as affirmative action legislation. This could be said to be true for South African Generation Y employees in the IT industry. Black economic empowerment policy has reduced the barriers of entry for young professionals and also increased the number of alternative employment opportunities. Hammida (2004) found that employees who earn high wages are less inclined to change jobs than those employees earning low wages, which may also be true for Generation Y IT professionals. A study conducted by DiPrete and Nonnemaker (1997) in America found that social and legal policies had modest effects on the mobility and embeddedness of their respondents. Again, in the South African context this may or may not be true for the Black population and requires further investigation.

An additional finding from the factorially derived model was that satisfaction with benefits is positively correlated with supportive organisational climate. The postulated relationship between satisfaction with benefits and supportive organisational climate was found to be significant.

Feldman and Ng (2007) refer to the practice of asking employees to generate outside offers to justify requests for pay raises and they acknowledge that this practice has several unintended consequences and could lead to people not feeling supported by the organisation. According to Maertz and Griffeth (2004), this practice forces employees to search for jobs more frequently and it focuses on the best performing employees who are able to generate the greatest number of external offers. According to Pil and Leana (2000), this practice also forces employees to accept the higher salary offers even if they are not attracted to them as they do not want to lose face if their current employer does not extend a counter offer to them.

The results support the expectation that satisfaction with benefits is negatively correlated to intention to quit, but the researcher could not find evidence of the anticipated moderation by job embeddedness.

6.4.11.1. Conclusion

According to Zhang et al. (2012), the mechanisms behind voluntary turnover have yielded a number of multivariate turnover models with modest prediction capabilities, accounting for less than 5–25 per cent of its variance. In this study we were able to produce a model that explains 40 per cent of the variance in intention to quit. Zhang et al. (2012) further indicate that because of the modest predictive strength of these turnover models, the need for developing new theories has inspired new interest in gaining insight into the turnover process of which job embeddedness theory is representative. Job embeddedness, according to Mitchell et al. (2001b), is still under development. A few studies are now focusing beyond predicting incremental variation in turnover through job embeddedness and are examining the conceptualisation and measurement issues (Zhang et al., 2012). One of these issues we encountered in this study relates to organisational links, as discussed in this chapter. This challenge has led us to perform various statistical techniques, such as Confirmatory Factor Analysis; Exploratory Factor Analysis and PLS based analysis. With the aid of the statistical techniques applied, three models were produced to understand which constructs served as the antecedents to intention to quit. In the final analysis a new latent model, which is also referred to as a factorially derived model, was produced, indicating that 40 per cent of intention to quit is explained by the model and that 60 per cent of job embeddedness is also explained by the model – shedding light on why Generation Y employees in the IT industry choose to stay with organisations.

It is apparent that amongst the identified independent variables the four variables that influence the intention to quit the most are satisfaction with benefits, job embeddedness supportive organisational climate and transformational leadership.

The statistical findings in this research project indicated satisfaction with benefits as a key contributor and the strongest contributor to intention to quit. An important distinction to make here is the difference between pay and benefits. In the case of South African Generation Ys, where learning, development, growth opportunities and advancement are key drivers (Smith, 2010), it is safe to say that the Generation Y professional understands the reciprocal nature of the employer–employee relationship. They understand that to earn more they must develop their skills to increase their value to the organisation and in that way be placed to increase their earning potential. Therefore, satisfaction with benefits is more than monetary value; learning, development, advancement and growth opportunities can also be deemed as benefits. Chances are that if a Generation Y employee must choose between employers X and Y offering the same total cost to company, they are more

likely to choose the employer who offers greater opportunities for growth, advancement and learning. From a retention perspective, Generation Y employees are more likely to stay with the employer who provides opportunities for growth and advancement and where they feel they are in a space of perpetual learning. Practical ideas for creating an environment of perpetual learning for Generation Y employees are presented in the section on practical interventions for managers later in the chapter.

From a purely monetary perspective, we also observe that South African Generation Y IT professionals are more inclined to select the very minimum of the pension or provident contribution options, which is compulsory for employees in South Africa. In the researcher's experience IT professionals would even prefer to be employed as a contractor instead of a full-time employee to avoid having to contribute to the pension or provident fund. In addition, contractor employees' "net pay" is more than the "net pay" of the permanent employee and therefore it can influence Generation Ys' decision to leave permanent employment for contract employment. Practical interventions are offered later in the chapter to potentially circumvent this temptation.

Flexi-time, working differently, bringing your own device to work, and international work assignment policies are all examples of Generation Y-friendly policies. These policies are not available in all organisations and enrich the employee value proposition, which is often referred to as "soft" benefits. It is important therefore to identify, consider and intentionally design the "soft" benefits in endeavours to retain the Generation Y cohort, as it is clearly an important influencer of intention to quit. Ideas regarding packaging benefits differently and uniquely designed with Generation Y employees in mind are presented in the practical interventions section later in the chapter. If benefits are presented as unique benefits, these may be the benefits they loathe to lose when they leave the organisation, and which they could deem as possible organisational sacrifices – which is a subconstruct of job embeddedness. Job embeddedness is the next highest influencer of intention to quit and is discussed next.

Job embeddedness is considered another key predictor of intention to quit. Although job embeddedness proved not to be a moderator as anticipated, further research is encouraged as the indications in the literature point in the opposite direction. The postulated relationship between job embeddedness and intention to quit was, however, supported in this research project. This enables employers and business leaders to be pro-active in retaining Generation Y employees by creating a web that embeds employees, thereby reducing their turnover intentions. Ideas to do so are presented in the practical interventions for managers section later in the chapter.

Job embeddedness taps into how an employee fits into the organisation, which speaks to their sense of belonging and has the ability to embed the employee in the organisation. This is one of the job embeddedness subconstructs that can be modified to suit the preferences of Generation Y employees. Customisation within this domain is also an option in that interventions can be designed

to speak to the fit component of job embeddedness for example presenting workshops to ensure value congruency between the organisation and the Generation Y employee. This example is discussed in detail in the practical intervention section. Organisational links is the subconstruct through which employees can effectively create links that strengthen the web of connections in the organisation through socialisation. Despite the shortcomings of the links measurement, organisational links can be created through social support mechanisms, thereby building and strengthening the connections between the employee and the organisation. Proposed interventions are presented later in the chapter.

Finally, organisational sacrifice speaks to the fear of what will be lost should the employee leave the organisation. All the proposed interventions customised for Generation Y employees that are recommended for organisational fit and organisational links could serve as the unique propositions which the employee may fear to lose, should they leave the organisation.

The third highest predictor identified influencing intention to quit in this research project was supportive organisational climate, which is presented below.

Supportive organisational climate is another independent variable that was identified as a predictor of the intention to quit. As previously discussed, it is very important for Generation Y employees to feel supported from an organisational and a social perspective. The subconstructs of supportive organisational climate – managerial competence, employee commitment, co-operation and co-ordination, and consistency and customer orientation – are all key in retaining Generation Y employees. The supportive organisational climate measurement stretches across all levels in the organisation, from the leader (managerial competence) to team members (co-operation and collaboration), and even to clients (customer orientation). It is clear from the findings presented in the research project that support is important for Generation Y employees at both an organisational and social level. A key requirement for software developers in the IT industry is to be in an environment where collaboration and co-operation is high. As indicated by Eisner (2005) and Gardner and Eng (2005), Generation Y employees value achievement and it makes sense that Generation Y would feel supported if they experienced high levels of collaboration and co-operation that would advance the achievement of goals, tasks and deliverables and the demonstration of managerial competence. Failing this, they may feel frustrated in a highly political climate or where the manager or leader is perceived as incompetent, which would impact their sense of achievement negatively. Solving problems for clients also provides a sense of achievement for Generation Y employees. The customer orientation subconstruct of supportive organisational climate is a key component of satisfying the sense of achievement of Generation Y employees. To achieve this would be fortuitous for organisations to ensure that technologies, processes and procedures are efficient, “red-tape” free, and advanced, providing the organisation with the competitive edge in meeting the needs of clients and in turn satisfying the sense of achievement of its Generation Y workforce.

The fourth influencer of intention to quit based on the findings of this research project is transformational leadership, which is presented next.

Transformational leadership is the fourth and last influencer of intention to quit. Leadership development is a necessary investment for organisations as it is said that “people join companies and leave managers”, as quoted in a business article (Kleiman, 2018, p. 32). Leaders play a vital role in setting the tone of how employees experience the organisation. They also are considered talent magnets if they are very good leaders. Transformational leaders inspire employee motivation, they encourage intellectual stimulation and they foster a climate of trust (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Dai Dai, Chen, & Wu, 2013) which are attractive to Generation Y employees. According to the findings of this research project, transformational leadership could reduce the quit intentions of Generation Y employees in the IT industry. It is therefore desirable to take staff in leadership positions across the organisation through transformational leadership training, if the organisation is serious about retaining their Generation Y workforce.

6.5. OBJECTIVE 4: RECOMMENDATIONS TO RECRUITERS, HR PROFESSIONALS, TALENT MANAGERS AND BUSINESS LEADERS

The following section presents the practical interventions business leaders, managers, human capital practitioners and talent managers, who would be referred to as stakeholders in the section below, can consider in their endeavours to retain Generation Y employees in the IT industry. The practical interventions presented will be based on the findings regarding the four antecedents as previously discussed, namely, antecedent 1 (satisfaction with benefits), antecedent 2 (job embeddedness), antecedent 3 (supportive organisational climate) and antecedent 4 (transformational leadership).

It should be noted that the recommendations are based on the implications of the quantitative results, as well as the rich feedback received during the qualitative phase. The recommendations have not necessarily been recorded elsewhere, but are largely based on the researcher’s experiences as a registered industrial psychologist working with predominantly Generation Y IT professionals.

The first set of recommendations are focused upon the antecedent identified as satisfaction with benefits.

6.5.1 Opportunity to increase the employee value proposition through the repackaging of what is considered as benefits

Researchers are learning that money and salary are not amongst the highest priorities of the Generation Y workforce (Gilbert, 2011; Jauhar et al., 2017). This has led to the repackaging of the concept of benefits in two ways: firstly, addressing breaking the mould of benefits being considered as monetary only and extending the term benefits to include the non-monetary elements as well,

which are referred to as “soft” benefits. Secondly, the proposal is made to repackage benefits by giving Generation Y employees the opportunity to structure their remuneration differently and allow for customisation. Supporting this understanding, Poornima (2009) confirms that Generation Y employees seek to get more out of their career than just a pay cheque. They are about fun, social interaction, personal development and learning, and having meaningful work whilst making a difference.

Satisfaction with benefits is one of the key factors contributing to the quit intentions of Generation Y employees, according to the findings of the study. It would be worthwhile for employers to reconsider how benefits are explained during the offer stage of employment. Usually when benefits are addressed it is limited to the monetary aspects of the package and the number of annual leave days the employee would be entitled to. Since we are in a market where the war for talent is fierce, and especially for Generation Y IT professionals, we find that it is often the case that the employer is being interviewed and not the employee. The interview is an opportunity to present the prospective employee with the organisational benefits. For existing Generation Y employees, consider presenting a road show introducing a “Benefits reloaded” campaign, where the concept of benefits is reshaped in the minds of the existing Generation Y staff complement. The proposal is to broaden the concept of benefits to include what is known as “soft” benefits. Ensure that these “soft” benefits include learning and development initiatives. Another attractive factor for Generation Y employees would be to present them with a career plan during the interview and speak to their need for growth by having a complementary individual development plan which is informed during the interview with definite timelines. Consider introducing a programme called “My journey”, which focuses on exposing the employee to the area of business s/he wishes to grow into over the next three to five years. Once the employee has identified the discipline, for example the employee is currently a junior developer and wishes to grow into a business analyst role, the employee is assigned a mentor who is a business analyst and a three-month expedition is arranged during which the employee is assigned to the business analyst department to be exposed to the environment and to make an informed decision about moving into that particular area of business.

Supporting the notion of customising talent attraction, development and retention strategies, Dwyer (2009) suggests that understanding what motivates the respective generations is key in unlocking the value and knowledge each generation brings to the workplace. They reference the importance of flexibility to the Generation Y cohort as an example and recommend that managers use this to motivate Generation Y employees. Flexible working hours therefore could be considered as a “soft” benefit.

An opportunity exists for businesses to reconsider the structure of packages. Given the current economic climate, it is very difficult for organisations to pay performance bonuses, or the so-called 13th cheque. Yet for many it is something to look forward to towards the end of the year. Provide the

employee with the option to contribute a portion of their salary towards a fund that accrues interest over 12 months, which they can withdraw as a 13th cheque at the end of the year. In the event where the organisation is able to pay performance bonuses, use the bonus to match a percentage of the annual contribution the employee has made to their pension or provident fund to encourage contributing to the fund. As previously mentioned, a trend to choose to work on a contract basis instead of being employed permanently in order to have more "net pay" has been observed in the industry. Increased net pay is possible as a contractor, as the employee is not obligated to contribute towards pension or provident funds (as legislated) as contractors are expected to have these provisions made in their personal capacity. An option to circumvent this is to create a pipeline of "gigs" where employees can bid for software development work which they can do in their spare time and the remuneration earned through this work is channelled to their pension or provident funds. According to Erickson (2008), Generation Y employees are likely to have a mantra that says, "I need to live life now and work toward long-term shared goals". Such a mantra could create a conflict in Generation Ys when it comes to saving for their future, as well as living in the moment. Organisations need to be creative in structuring benefit packages where Generation Y employees have options to save for long-term goals whilst being able to "live life now".

The second set of recommendations are focused upon the antecedent identified as job embeddedness.

6.5.2 The creation of a web that leads to Generation Y job embeddedness

One way in which stakeholders can be proactive in their retention efforts is through "stay conversations". Stay conversations are similar to the traditional "exit interviews", where employees are interviewed to ascertain their reason for leaving, but different because they focus on why people stay and are pro-active in nature. HR practitioners use exit interview feedback reports to develop remedial strategies where needed. This is often reactive as it does nothing for the person leaving. Stay conversations, on the other hand, are pro-active, where the employee's reason for staying is discussed with the intention of creating more of what is causing people to stay and finding out what people are not happy about, in which case stakeholders can be pro-active in addressing such issues. Stay conversations send a very strong message to employees that they matter, they are valued and that the company seeks to continuously improve. Stay conversations, according to a business article (Kleiman, 2018), are a simple yet effective way in which managers can casually engage employees on their job satisfaction, their opinions and ideas relating to the organisation, and their short-term and long-term goals and objectives, amongst others. These conversations can also alert managers when an employee is unhappy and enable them to do something about it before the intention to quit is activated.

As explained by Mitchell et al. (2001b), organisational links is the subconstruct that refers to the psychological and social connections that are formed by the employee within the organisation. They can be both formal and informal connections. In terms of the job embeddedness theory, these connections are the strands that create the web which creates the “stickiness” or embeddedness. Generation Y professionals favour informal settings more than formal settings. In the IT industry socialising whilst working is welcomed. It would not be uncommon for software developers to order pizzas and other forms of refreshments whilst working on a deliverable. It may be a good idea for the CEO and executives to schedule impromptu casual lunch meetings with Generation Y employees, thereby creating more informal encounters and interaction with leaders in the business. From a talent management perspective, this is a very effective strategy in creating the platform for the CEO to meet with the top talent in the company. These lunch meetings could be used to inspire and motivate the Generation Y employees and speak to the informal preference of Generation Y employees for building relationships. In terms of the job embeddedness theory, the greater the number of links the employee has within the organisation on both a formal and an informal base, the stronger the link with the organisation. The existing body of knowledge has indicated that the type of the relationship, as well as the depth and authenticity of the relationship, will determine whether the link has the power to embed the employee.

From an organisational fit perspective, it would be easier to increase the “stickiness” when there is a good fit. Therefore, recruiters need to exercise mindfulness about culture fit when recruiting Generation Y employees. According to Jerome, Scales, Whithem, and Quain (2014), when trying to establish a good fit between the prospective employee and the organisation it is important for the recruiters to be upfront about the organisation’s culture and policies. As per the findings during the qualitative phase of this research project, it could be postulated that a Generation Y may be attracted to a more casual dress code and to an environment that is very relaxed.

Stickiness can also be created through attachment policies, such as a key talent retention bonus assisting managers in their efforts to retain their best employees. Key talent retention bonuses would speak to the satisfaction with pay construct. As most Generation Y employees are in the start-up phase of their lives when they are purchasing their first home or car, monetary incentives might be important. This speaks to the organisational sacrifice subconstruct of job embeddedness. Having all of the above contingent on whether the person stays or leaves may reduce turnover, as employees would consider more carefully what they would stand to lose should they leave. Based on the other subconstructs, the considerations for leaving may include the risk of losing friends, mentors, and a fun working environment, etc.

The third set of recommendations are focused upon the antecedent identified as supportive organisational climate.

(a) Consider creating a Generation Y-empowered supportive organisational climate

According to Jerome et al. (2014), leaders managing a multigenerational workforce need not feel pressured to change the entire work environment to cater for Generation Ys as the new entrants in the workplace. However, they need to recognise that with time this cohort will make up a sizeable percentage of the workforce and failing to adapt to this reality, they may run the risk of attracting talent required for the future. Creating a supportive climate is therefore recommended to speak to the needs of Generation Y employees as per the findings of this research project. In creating a supportive organisational climate, one is not necessarily changing the culture altogether, as it may result in the other generational cohorts building up resentment towards the Generation Y cohort. To create a supportive organisational climate, leaders are encouraged to understand the values of Generation Y employees and to adjust their leadership styles to speak to the values of Generation Ys without having to change all the practices in the organisation. Creating a climate that speaks to Generation Y employees could include creating incentives that appeal to Generation Y, assigning them a mentor, and ensuring that they are given work that provides them with a greater sense of fulfilment (Poornima, 2009). Over time, as the older generations exit the organisation, the organisational culture could gradually shift towards the desired one, rather than making a radical shift.

Generation Y employees are described by Fenn (2010) as extreme collaborators who not only contribute to organisations, but society as well. It is therefore important for organisations to create a climate where collaboration is encouraged and where red-tape cultures that could frustrate Generation Y employees, ultimately causing them to leave, are minimised and reduced. A climate of collaboration can be created through creating “think thank” sessions or creating cross-departmental projects to encourage collaboration. Another way of encouraging collaboration is through rewarding teams for mastering the art of collaboration by being nominated, either by themselves or others within the organisation, as the best collaborators. The more Generation Ys feel a sense of collaboration, the more they are inclined to feel that they can achieve their goals, which speaks to their need for achievement. A further benefit to the organisation for creating a collaborative work environment is the sharing of different perspectives and ideas, which increases the sense of learning for Generation Y employees and is considered a retention mechanism. A supportive organisational climate that could inform the retention strategies for Generation Y employees can, for example, be created through mentorship programmes, being assigned to meaningful work, creating a fun workplace, informal dress code policies, customised benefit packages, and flexible work hours.

(b) Do mentorship the Generation Y way and create a case of perpetual learning

According to Shaw and Fairhurst (2008), Generation Y employees have the greatest learning development and personal expectations in comparison to the other generational cohorts. For this reason, learning and development has become a crucial factor and “must have” feature in the

retention strategies of organisations. A huge mistake organisations often make during budget review is to reduce their training expenditure. This may have been effective and proved not to have impacted the retention of the workforce in the past, but this is certainly no longer the case. Sacrificing training may mean sacrificing your Generation Y talent. It is therefore important to review the learning and development strategy of the organisation and extend the idea of training beyond that of a classroom setting. Training should include on-the-job training, mentorship and coaching, and departmental exchange programmes that need not translate into a huge budget requirement.

Ensuring that mentorship and coaching programmes are available for Generation Y employees in the workplace is critical in the retention of Generation Y employees. As per the findings of this research, career advancement and growth opportunities are essential for Generation Y employees. According to McCrindle (2006), mentorship is vital for Generation Y employees as it assists them in developing their creative ideas and being directed in the right direction with the help of more experienced workers from the older generation. Baby Boomers are considered the most helpful, as they can provide Generation Y employees with real-life examples of their own experiences relevant to the personal development needs of the Generation Y employee. Baby Boomers are also in a life stage where they seek to leave a legacy. Mentoring others could serve that purpose. As indicated by Dwyer (2009), generations in the workplace are at different points in their lives, each seeking different things from their work environment. Generation Ys seeking mentorship and Baby Boomers seeking to leave a legacy provide a perfect example of a mutually beneficial need that can be fulfilled by organisations.

There is more than one type of mentoring and it may be worthwhile to offer options to the Generation Y workforce in terms of the preference of mentorship they want. The traditional form of mentorship where an older experienced person mentors a younger inexperienced person is no longer the only option for mentoring. The three other types of mentorship which are referred to are reverse mentorship, group mentorship and anonymous mentorship, according to a Harvard Business Review article by Meister and Willyerd (2010). Reverse mentorship occurs where a Generation Y employee, paired with an executive, teaches him or her social media, for example, while the executive mentors the younger employee on customer engagement or provides insights on how the business operates (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Generation Y employees are technologically advanced and often looking for ways in which they can add value to organisations. Creating a programme where they can serve as mentors to the older generation could create that sense of value add for Generation Ys. Group mentorship, according to Meister and Willyerd (2010), is an effective way to give Generation Y employees the feedback that they need and it is less resource intensive. The initiative can be led by senior managers or can even be a peer-to-peer arrangement. Group mentoring is facilitated through a technology platform that gives the employees the opportunity to do mentorship on their own terms. The third form of mentorship is anonymous mentorship, where an employee is matched up with a

professional coach or experienced executive and the interactions are completely an online exchange. The matching is done through psychological testing and background reviews and the mentor would typically be outside the organisation. The engagement usually runs for a 12-month period and is paid for by the mentee's organisation (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). These three mentorship options require different levels of investment, but if incorporated into the talent management strategy of the organisation, can all be applied appropriately.

Because of organisational budget constraints impacting upon the learning and development strategy, organisations may want to consider video games as another training and development method. According to Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, and Wright (2010), training Generation Y employees through computer-based learning can prove cost-effective. This is because this training method is void of trainer, travelling, multiple training sessions and in some cases venue hire costs. In addition, employees can play or work through the training materials in the comfort of their own homes and at their own pace. Noe et al. (2010) further postulate that the inexpensive technique of video game learning has shown at least a five per cent improvement in learning among younger employees compared to the traditional techniques of learning. Generation Y employees are also likely to feel entertained whilst learning and not lose interest as in the case of lecture style training.

Other forms of investing in staff through learning and development may be accelerated development plans or stretch assignments. This is where an employee is placed in a role for a short period and challenged. When Generation Y employees are exposed to mentorship in their organisation, they may feel that the organisational climate is supportive.

Finally, practical interventions are presented below for the promotion of transformational leadership, which is the fourth and final antecedent identified.

6.5.3 Consider offering transformational leadership development training

Managing generational differences in the workplace has become a leadership imperative, according to Jerome et al. (2014). In managing Generation Ys, the role of supervisors and managers needs to evolve to that of coach, mentor or facilitator. For this reason, transformational leadership has been identified as one of the most effective leadership styles in leading Generation Ys.

Transformational leadership development for leaders, managers and supervisors in the workplace is therefore recommended. Training can be provided through a series of workshops, coaching and pairing leaders who exhibit the behaviours of good transformational leaders with those who need to acquire the "know-how" of being a great transformational leader. As previously mentioned, people join organisations and leave managers. It is therefore important to see the change in leadership style as an absolute business imperative in the retention of Generation Y employees. One of the focus areas of the transformational leadership training would be to embrace a more empowering approach,

which will in turn provide Generation Y employees with autonomy and remove any element of micro-management that can lead to turnover. Another way to increase Generation Y satisfaction through an empowering management style is to create project-centred, rather than function-centred work. Since Generation Ys are achievement-orientated and work best when having to engage with short-term objectives where they can be evaluated almost immediately (James et al., 2008), this could present them with the necessary challenges and opportunities to be creative, thereby increasing their sense of value add to the organisation. Confirming the notion that Generation Y employees are goal-orientated, Jauhar et al. (2017) further emphasise that Generation Y employees appreciate feedback. A further recommendation would therefore be that the transformational leadership development training should include how to provide feedback and how to comfortably provide frequent feedback to Generation Y employees.

In a study conducted in America amongst Generation Ys, transformational leadership was found to increase employee involvement (Bodenhausen & Curtis, 2016). Leaders are encouraged to provide extensive feedback to employees as Generation Y employees crave feedback. A suggestion would be to do a weekly group feedback session on project-based work. Generation Y employees need reassurance and, according to Cleavenger and Munyon (2013), by merely talking to employees about their work and the meaning of their work leaders would be considered transformational.

Another demonstration of good leadership is customising initiatives based on the knowledge of what motivates the various generations in the workplace, as previously mentioned. It would be prudent for leadership to review their talent attraction, development and retention strategies. Dwyer (2009) supports this recommendation by advising that organisations revise and retool these strategies to facilitate the integration of the various generations in the workplace. Further to this, they recommend that intergenerational training is offered to bridge the gap between the generations. Highlight the value each generation brings to the organisation and through the training create a platform where job experiences are shared, thereby building the work relationships. Understanding generational differences will assist in a smooth communication exchange amongst the generational cohorts.

6.6. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The literature overview identified a number of possible antecedents of intention to quit in which the fairly new construct of job embeddedness played a dominant role. The argument was that job embeddedness, as representing the reasons why people stay, may represent a much more constructive and profitable approach to the challenge of intention to quit among Generation Y IT professionals. Another novel approach advocated was the introduction of the Endorsement of Generation Y values as opposed to the categorical variable of Generation Y status. The argument in favour of this approach was that merely belonging to a generational cohort does not necessarily mean that the individual endorses the values attributed to the cohort. Secondly one can also not

assume that international trends regarding generational cohorts would automatically have a similar impact on South African cohort members. Unfortunately, the accompanying study focused upon creating the Endorsement of Generation Y Values was terminated at a critical point in time and consequently the instrument was not available for the current study.

The provisional conceptual model and propositions were evaluated in terms of its relevance for a multicultural South African Generation Y group of IT professionals during the qualitative phase of the study. This phase produced rich data that not only broadened the understanding of the researcher of the dynamics involved in the nomological network of antecedents, but also served to support the inclusion of the identified constructs in the final conceptual model. The responses of the respondents also indicated the importance of satisfaction with pay, which was added to the conceptual model; underscored the importance of transformational leadership as the preferred leadership style and led to a choice between organisational culture and organisational climate in favour of organisational climate on the basis of the nature of the companies participating in the current study.

This study used a mixed methods research design (exploratory sequential design) with a specific combination of variables contained in this study which no previous studies have utilised. The exploratory sequential approach, which is not that well-known, again proved to be an excellent tool in research that are of a more exploratory nature as opposed to confirmatory research. The approach taken to first pilot the compiled questionnaire should also be seen as a best-practice-example as the feedback enabled the researcher to adjust the format in order to ensure a more positive response to it by the sample selected. The utilisation of a combination of the LISREL-approach to the evaluation of the measurement model and the PLS-approach served to further underscore the exploratory nature of the current research project. The successive evaluation of the three models (with Links; without Links, and the factorially derived model) was also in line with the exploratory approach.

The anticipated primary role of job embeddedness in the explanation of intention to quit did not materialise at the level anticipated, although about 40% of the variance in intention to quit was explained. What, however, illustrated the wisdom in the selection of the factors that supported intention to stay (job embeddedness), was the exceptionally high level of variance (60%) in job embeddedness explained by the nomological network of variables.

The current research highlighted problems with the measurement of Job Embeddedness at a within-instrument level and in its relationship with other variables. The choice to do an exploratory factor analysis on the item level of the measurement model revealed interesting overlaps between constructs, which supports the argument raised by Vermooten (2018) about conceptualising Job Resources not as a specific construct with specific sub-dimensions and an attendant measuring instrument, but rather as a meta-theoretical approach incorporating multiple subdimensions, such

as the subconstructs of Job Embeddedness. The three-item scale of ITQ similarly showed cross loadings with other factors and therefore the factorial validity of it may be questioned.

Given the unique background of South Africa as discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, the study is the first to investigate the organisational factors impacting the intention to quit of Generation Y IT professionals. In light of the previous comment, this study was the first study that explored the psychometric properties of the instruments for use with South African Generation Y IT professionals. This study indicated that the internationally accepted antecedents of JE and ITQ has been proven to be salient in the South African context as well.

Lastly, based on both the theoretical and empirical outcomes of the study, practical interventions are offered to assist HR professionals, talent managers and business leaders in attracting, retaining and developing Generation Y IT professionals.

6.7. LIMITATIONS

The following discussion deals with the limitations of this research study.

It would not be appropriate to generalise the findings of the research to other industries as it focused only on the IT sector and specifically on software development organisations in South Africa. The findings of this research are also not generalisable to members of other generational cohorts. In the current study no attempt was made to study cultural differences in the endorsement of the various constructs utilised in the study, which represents an opportunity for further research.

The lack of prior research examining some of the constructs explored in this research project, given that job embeddedness, for instance, is an evolving concept (Zhang et al., 2012), is considered a limitation, yet it also presents an opportunity for future research. Generation Y values endorsement was intended to form part of this research project but had to be omitted as the questionnaire was not ready at the time of data collection. This serves as a limitation as it was believed that the addition of Generation Y value endorsement would have enriched the insights regarding the antecedents to intention to quit. However, this also presents an opportunity for future research.

The use of self-reported data can also serve as a limitation in research and in this case, as the researcher solely made use of self-reported data. The concern with self-reported data is that it possesses several potential sources of bias. Examples of these biases include selective memory, where participants remember or do not remember experiences that occurred in the past. Exaggeration may be another example, where events are reported as more significant than what they are in reality. Other types of bias are acquiescence (tendency to agree with statements), demand characteristics (tendency to assist the researcher with achieving the objectives of the research), extreme responding (habitually selecting responses from the extremes of the scale) and

social desirability bias (motivation to present the self in a favourable light). In the current study the motivation of the respondents to create a particular impression may therefore have affected the results.

At the measurement level the poor performance of the organisational links subscale has detracted from the proper evaluation of the conceptual contribution of job embeddedness to the nomological network of variables utilised to explain variation in intention to quit. It is clear that the factual-numerical nature of the current subscale does not represent the desired qualitative experience of organisational links. A further limitation is that only on-the-job-embeddedness was studied, while the component of off-the-job embeddedness was not included. The three-item intention to quit scale also proved to load on more than one factor and warrants further investigation.

At a higher level of factorial abstraction, the factorial soundness of job embeddedness and job resources also appear to be questionable and it is recommended that the factorial integrity of the two constructs be reviewed. As mentioned before, there are new theoretical insights to be gleaned from an investigation of the overarching factorial structures of the job embeddedness and job resources constructs. The current results of the factorial analysis will have to be evaluated on a different sample as it formed part of an exploratory process focusing on a single sample.

Despite the above-mentioned limitations, new insights regarding the relationship between transformational leadership, supportive organisational climate, satisfaction with pay, job resources, job embeddedness and intention to quit were developed.

Recommendations for future research are presented next.

6.8. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of the current research project have emphasised future research opportunities in job embeddedness. The opportunity to investigate off-the-job-embeddedness, as this study only focused on on-the-job-embeddedness, is an aspect to mention. In addition, an opportunity exists to investigate the subscale organisational links of the job embeddedness construct as the current measure focuses only on the quantitative aspects and not on the qualitative evaluation of the different kinds of links.

Another opportunity exists to examine the factorial soundness of job embeddedness and job resources as there appears to be an overlap, which questions the factorial integrity of the two constructs. The relationship between satisfaction with pay and job embeddedness represents a further opportunity for research. The moderating effects of Generation Y values endorsement on the nomological net of variables, as well as the moderating effect of Job Embeddedness should also be further investigated.

As we are still grappling with understanding the Generation Y workforce, we need to be mindful of the new generation, referred to as Gen Z, who is getting ready to enter the world of work. Therefore, evaluating the conceptual model with other generational samples, such as Gen Z, who are the next entrants into the market place, may prove to be worthwhile.

The intercultural generalisability of international cohort research is a further important issue that requires participative research at an international level.

6.9. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study endeavoured to facilitate the understanding of the intention to quit among Generation Y professionals in the IT sector within the South African context by examining the relationships between identified variables. The overall aim of the study was accomplished, and the findings open up possibilities for future research.

In addition, this study sought to contribute to the understanding of job embeddedness, which is considered an underdeveloped construct. The sparseness of research articles indicates an opportunity for more investigations on the construct as it has made a significant contribution to the existing turnover literature. From a practical perspective, it is important for organisations to recognise the changing trends in the workforce and world of work. Organisations that fail to make the effort to attract the Generation Y employees risk losing the competitive edge and accompanying vigour.

Research in South Africa on the Generation Y cohort is lagging, compared to the related research activities elsewhere in the world. As we still attempt to fill the gap in understanding the South African Generation Y cohort, we are already being challenged by the entrance of the Generation Z into the workplace.

6.10. SUMMARY

The concluding chapter showed that the constructs chosen for the current study evolved throughout the qualitative and quantitative phases of the research and were predominantly associated with acceptable psychometric properties, which enhanced the degree of confidence experienced in making sense of the results of this study.

The final model of the study proposed antecedents to intention to quit relating to Generation Y professionals in the IT industry as follows:

Based on the statistical analysis, the antecedents to intention to quit were shown to be job embeddedness, satisfaction with pay, supportive organisational climate and transformational leadership. The study also indicates that a greater proportion of the variance in job embeddedness is explained compared to intention to quit. This chapter concluded with a consideration of limitations,

proposed practical interventions for the retention of Generation Y professionals in the IT industry, and recommendations for future research.

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APPENDIX A:
CEO LETTERS

16 May 2015

To Whom it May Concern:

This letter is in response to a request to conduct focus groups within our organisation. We hereby confirm that we are in support of the study being conducted: Antecedents to the intention to quit amongst Gen Y IT professionals in software development organisations in South Africa.

I, Eric Veldboer, hereby confirm that Ms. Candice Booysen (Student number: 13819313) has been granted permission to conduct research within our organization for the fulfilment of requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management at the University of Stellenbosch Business School.

We understand that focus groups will form part of the research process and that the participation of our employees will be completely voluntary and done on the basis of informed consent.

Should you have any questions please feel free to contact me.

Kind regards,

Mr. Eric Veldboer

Chief Executive Officer

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Directors: N. Michelson, J. Ferguin
Reg 1998/017153/07
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ARGILITY

15 May 2015

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter is in response to request to conduct focus groups within our organisation. We hereby confirm that we are in support of the study being conducted: Antecedents to the intention to quit amongst Gen Y IT professionals in software development organisations in South Africa.

I, Haydn Pinnell, hereby confirm that Ms. Candice Booysen (Student number: 13819313) has been granted permission to conduct research within our organization for the fulfillment of requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management at theUniversity of Stellenbosch Business School.

We understand that focus groups will form part of the research process and that the participation of our employees will be completely voluntary and done on the basis of informed consent.

Should you have any questions please feel free to contact me.

Kind regards,

Mr. Haydn Pinnell
Managing Director

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15 May 2015

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter is in response to request to conduct focus groups within our organisation. We hereby confirm that we are is support of the study being conducted: Antecedents to the intention to quit amongst Gen Y IT professionals in software development organisations in South Africa.

I, Steve Mallaby, hereby confirm that Ms. Candice Booysen (Student number: 13819313) has been granted permission to conduct research within our organization for the fulfilment of requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management at the University of Stellenbosch Business School.

We understand that focus groups will form part of the research process and that the participation of our employees will be completely voluntary and done on the basis of informed consent.

Should you have any questions please feel free to contact me.

Kind regards,

Mr. Steve Mallaby
Managing Director

APPENDIX B:

INTRODUCTORY EMAIL

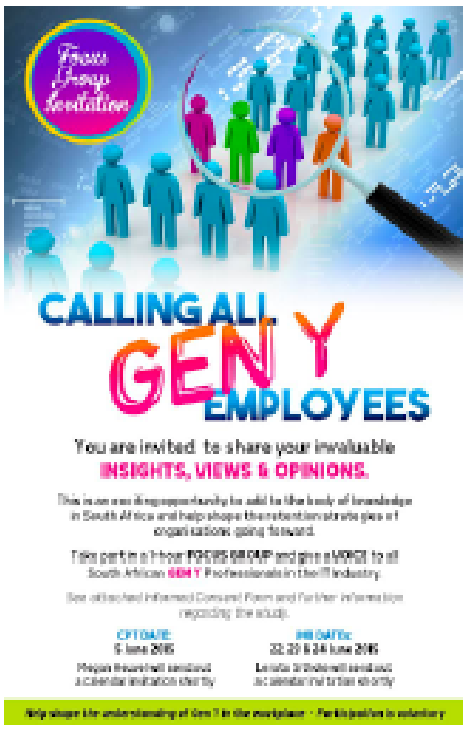
9/1/2015 alacrity Mail - You've been selected!

alacrity

Candice Booysen <candice.booysen@alacrity.co.za>

You've been selected!
1 message

Candice Booysen <candice.booysen@alacrity.co.za> 8 June 2015 at 11:13
To: Keenan Naidoo <knaidoo@argility.com>, wmorokshehla@argility.com, mmalangwane@argility.com, mndaba@argility.com, lmakela@argility.com, lkhan@argility.com, mmyburg@argility.com, Anita Justus <ajustus@argility.com>, louis@quenital.com, paulA@quenital.com, pleiland@quenital.com, mouer@argility.com, garethY@quenital.com, Zola Ocaylya <zola.ocaylya@alacrity.co.za>, ashepperd@argility.com, sphakoe@argility.com, mmaleo@argility.com, lmadondo@argility.com, Shogun Naidoo <snaidoo@argility.com>, mpadayachee@argility.com, wchetty@argility.com, lnaidoo@argility.com, llones@argility.com, msutherland-dodds@argility.com, lmbuyazwe@argility.com, JanetF@quenital.com, Koos Mpyana <koos.mpyana@alacrity.co.za>, Dusty Roberts <dusty.roberts@alacrity.co.za>, shauno@quenital.com, kimmyl@quenital.com, VenkanaN@quenital.com, arienaber@argility.com, msaki@argility.com, emashinga@argility.com, mmpshe@argility.com, lmohlabeng@argility.com, lbilal@argility.com, mward@argility.com, lmalahy@argility.com, Lesley Nteshaubeka <lesley.nteshaubeka@alacrity.co.za>, Gluen Mbalsane <gluen.mbalsane@alacrity.co.za>, Justice Ulele <justice.ulele@alacrity.co.za>
Cc: Makhidiso Sithole <msithole@argility.com>, Claudia Fraccaro <claudiaf@quenital.com>, Bopelo Mathuti <bmathuti@argility.com>



APPENDIX C:

FINAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

How does Gen Y employees perceive and describe their reasons for their willingness to stay in the organization.

Question 1:

How long have you worked for your current organization?

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Question 2:

What made you stay with the organization up to this point?

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Question 3:

What would you like to see changed or improved in the workplace?

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Question 4:

Is there anything that would make you leave?

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Questions derived from Jobembeddness: Why people stay research conducted by: Holmes, P., Chapman, I., & Baghurst, T. (2013).

Question 5:

Describe the leadership style that you prefer? How would/ does this leadership style influence your work in your current job?

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Question 6:

How would you describe the culture of your organization? What do you like the most of your organization's culture and what do you like the least of your organization's culture?

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Question 7:

Which aspects of your job make it easier to perform optimally? Which aspects of your job make it more difficult to perform optimally?

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Question 8:

Is there anything else you would want to say or any questions?

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Questions derived from Jobembeddedness: Why people stay research conducted by: Holmes, P., Chapman, T., & Baghurst, T. (2013).

APPENDIX D:

GENERATION Y THANK YOU CARDS

APPENDIX E:

PHD RECORDINGS

Researcher: Hello everyone and welcome to the Gen Y Focus group. I'll go through the process and how the session will work. First of all, thank you so much for attending today and offering your views as a Gen Y employee. The basis of this study is looking at what informs intentions for people to quit. An academic term called antecedents refers to the elements or factors leading up to that decision of quitting one's job.

I am doing my PHD at the moment and what I have discovered is that a lot of IT professionals like yourselves are highly mobile. The intention of this study is to assist organisations with their retention efforts for the younger generation. Who best to engage than Gen Y employees themselves to share with business leaders what is important to them from a retention perspective. Most studies of the Gen Y generation is informed by Canada, USA and there's been quite a recent number of studies done in India. Most organisations are using that information to make managerial decisions about us Gen Y. So I have a concern about the lack of availability of literature for managers that is South African specific. So today is really just to unpack as South Africans and to give voice to our decision-making process, because that can be very different to what USA, Canada and Australia is experiencing for example. You have received a consent form as well as an answer form.

When we go through the questions I am going to ask you to take your own experience into account. Also think about how your friends would respond because today you are not just giving voice to your own opinion but you also giving voice to Gen Y as a whole. So I will tell you exactly what we will be discussing.

Researcher: So just to go through this form is a part of the ethical clearance. Please note that this process is completely voluntary. You have received the consent form via email. Do you have any questions?

More participants entering the room.

Researcher: Hello guys…please have a seat.

Participants: hello.

Researcher: Ok so for the guys that just joined, as I've just explained the reason why we are meeting today. You are part of the focus group and thank you for availing your time. The focus group is looking at what makes us as Gen Y employees decide to stay with the organisation or actually move. So what is the purpose of this? You are going to help me, or your input is going to show me or lead me to a set of questions that I need to develop a questionnaire to get a South African Gen Y perspective in the industry. Do you have any questions regarding the consent form? Everyone comfortable with the content?

Participants: yes.

Researcher: The procedure is there's eight questions. I'll extend the question and you will write the response then we will have a group discussion after which we will move on to the next question.

There is no potential risk or discomfort. There shouldn't be any but if you feel like at any point you don't want to continue you are welcome to raise your hand and I will excuse you. Other than that, there shouldn't be any discomfort.

The confidentiality of the participants - I am not asking anywhere on the form for you to write your name or anything. The information that you give to me will only be shared with my supervisors and the assistants helping me with the research. So that is with regard to confidentiality.

The questionnaire you give to me at the end of the session I will use as input to the research and also I need to let you know that I am recording this session to transcribe the information to see themes…but again it will be discarded once the information is there and I happy to share with you once it's done and completed.

Any questions around that? Good - ok?

As mentioned before this is completely voluntary. You can at any point withdraw if you want to. There is also contact details if you feel that I have done something that is not above board. The contact details of my supervisors is there if you need to contact them.

So all I need you to do is to please complete the declaration form saying that you haven't been forced to do this and that it is completely voluntary and I will fill my part saying I have briefed you in terms of what we are going to do today. Any questions relating to that?

Researcher: No? Ok- great stuff. So can we start?

Participants: yes.

Researcher: Starting off, these are the eight questions, take one and pass on. Once you've signed the consent form you can forward it to the front of the room.

Researcher: Ok, just to reiterate how the process is going to work, I'll first ask the question, you will write your answer on the answer sheet provided then we will have a discussion around it and after we move on to the next question. Everyone comfortable?

Researcher: So the very first question is how Gen Y employees perceive and describe their reasons for their willingness to stay within the organisation.

Researcher: How long have you worked for your current organisation. You can answer either in years or months.

Researcher: For this purpose, I am going to go to question 2 because time and then we will unpack. Next question is, what made you stay with the organisation up to this point? It can be one reason, it can be three or five. As many as you want.

Researcher: Anyone wants to share? So if you had to think of why you stayed with this organisation or even previous organisations.

Participant: I would say for me is the comfort of having a job with the ways things are going these days, it's not easy to get a job.

Researcher: Ok so job security. Thank you.

Participant: Flexibility of my manager, so we can do other stuff as long as my stuff is covered.

Researcher: So flexibility is quite important for us, we don't like rigid micromanagement nor definite time frame. Is that correct?

Participant: Yes

Researcher: What else speaks to us as Gen Y's?

Participant: Fear- you think it's bad it can get worse. Knowing that things could get worse.

Researcher: So the unexpected, the unknown, if you leave here you don't know what's going to happen. Is it just that three concepts? Job security, flexibility and fear?

Participant: Growth - not learning anything.

Researcher: Ok so for us is knowing that we are learning something in some way. So that's growth in addition - thank you. We'll move onto the next question. If you have any other thoughts you are welcome to just jot them down on your answer sheet.

Researcher: Ok, moving on to the next question and again if you can't delve deeper in your experience please think about your friends that are also in the industry in the software development, think about them as well.

Researcher: The next question- number 3 is: what would you like to see changed or improved in the workplace? What do managers and organisational leaders need to change?

Participant: Should we be answering this thing as Gen Y as a whole or personal.

Researcher: Looking at the generation as a whole or even just yourself - both perspectives is also fine.

Researcher: Are we ready to share?

Participant: Obviously looking at Gen Y I think with the way times has changed certain uniform constraint should be removed, I feel like if someone can do the job then fine it shouldn't matter what they look like or what they wear or anything like that.

Researcher: So, it's about competence? Not uniform or constraint.

Participant: Yes exactly…it should be entirely about competence, we are very lucky here. That's what a lot of my mates complain about in corporate.

Researcher: So the concept that everyone must look the same and wear the same, be the same we – so we can improve on that. Thank you…Ok what else?

Participant: I would say less formalised workplace, as in like, you have to take a tea break at this time or lunch at this time and also what Mike touched on. The dress code and the freedom to express yourself.

Researcher: Great – thank you. Is there anything else we can improve on?

Participant: I think this is more personal. The ability to be able to use acquired /educational skills and acquired skills. Maybe don't just leave it to the manager to make sure that you do what you studied for. Maybe HR can check up that you use those skills and education.

Researcher: So making sure that those skills that you acquired are being utilised to its maximum? Ok, thank you.

Researcher: The third question is more opposite to number 2, it says: Is there anything that would make you leave? And again, think about your friends - it can also be a number of factors.

Researcher: Ok, anyone wants to share?

Participant: Salary decrease, sometimes you stay, maybe you are earning R200, so for the next coming five years you still earning R200 then I will leave.

Researcher: Ok so not just salary decrease but if it remains the same then you would leave.

Participant: I think 9 out of 10 people would go look for another job if they are offered more money.

Researcher: Is that a reality for all of us? Even if you don't know what you going into, would you still go?

Participant: Not necessarily, I speak for myself. I think the quality of life is still important. You can get paid twice your salary, but the workload will be much more, so I would still have to think about that.

Researcher: So you want that work-life balance.

Participant: You want to do what you can to get money, but it will also mean you will miss out on being alive. Especially being young…you are getting older and you have opportunities now and things you want to do.

Researcher: So I am hearing money. I am hearing if it stays the same or decreases you would also go and also better offers but also at the same time you would also weigh it up with whether you will be working working working and have no life or am I going to have a work-life balance sort of benefit?

Participant: I don't think it is all about earning more money. If there's better opportunity elsewhere where you will get better benefits. It can be same salary, but you don't have to work weekends, or you get better benefits or any other form of remuneration. It could be worth it - you know?

Researcher: Anything else that would make us leave? So we've got money, if we are offered more money.

Participant: Money and Growth

Researcher: So growth comes up again - if there is no growth we are not going to be staying for very long.

Participant: Not knowing where the company is going. Where are you heading to - what is happening in two years' time.

Researcher: So is it more of a career path or organisational vision and goals?

Participant: Both

Researcher: Ok, so we saying, if pay levels stay the same, if there is more money. If there is no growth and work-life balance.

Researcher: So what else would make you want to leave?

Participant: Growth

Researcher: So growth is quite important.

Participant: Not doing the same thing every day, every year.

Researcher: So you saying that is important. You referring to monotony. Is it true that we like variety, so you don't want to be bored?

Participant: Also, being fair in terms of rules, decision making, not being prejudice and stuff.

Researcher: So you would like to see that, not just from peer to peer but also leaders, everywhere in the organisation there's an extent of fairness.

Participant: Ja, - like also in the team and the strategy.

Researcher: Ok, that's a new theme coming through - thank you.

Researcher: We going to shift gears a little bit and focus on what you prefer in terms of leadership. The question would go: Number 1: Describe the leadership style that you prefer? Number 2: How would/does this leadership style influence your work in your current job?

Researcher: So first articulate the leadership style that you would prefer and how it would influence your work or your job. What are the qualities you are looking for in the leader?

Participant: I'll go back to a point of that you have to fair as a leader, in being fair you still have to be decisive.

Researcher: So I am going to stop you just because I want everyone's thoughts first and record those answers there and then we are going to have a discussion.

Participant- sure, no problem. Sorry.

Researcher: alright

Researcher: So do you want to start again, sorry for interrupting you earlier. You were talking about fairness?

Participant: Yes, and decisive in the routes that he wants to take the team in.

Researcher: So its fairness and decisiveness not being afraid but having the courage to make decision as a leader. What else are you looking for?

Participant: Also, when your leader is more hands on, more involved with the work. Then you feel like you are working towards a common goal rather than someone dictating saying you do this - you do that. It should be more of a mentorship kind of thing.

Researcher: So collaboration?

Participant: Yes, more like mentorship, coaches you, don't tell you what to do.

Participant: To add on to what he is saying, not being micro-managed. We work we adults I know what I need to do. The work I need to deliver and if I am not micro-managed my deliverance would be better. Coming to work would be easier.

Researcher: I don't know if you have been subjected to micromanagement. I have chapter in my life where I was, and it was painful- it is terrible. So micro-management is a no-no. So we want autonomy, autonomy is the freedom to make decisions but then equally take the responsibility and accountability for your actions.

Participant: Yes.

Researcher: Any other leadership style? So I've heard fairness, collaboration, micro-management is a no-no.

Participant: I think any leader who is a leader who haven't been on a leadership course should go on a leadership course. Some of us knows better.

Researcher: Are you finding that in your environment at the moment?

Participant: Well I have in the past and you'll find that you would've made a better leader than the person leading you if you went onto a course.

Participant: The whole team feels it. I also think that a leader should lead by example.

Researcher: So exemplary leadership. Live in such a way that we would want to follow or live in such a way that it is inspiring enough for us to follow. Anything else on leadership?

Participant: I think that a leader should be flexible that is 1 2 3 4 and then all of a sudden, we encounter a problem and then the wheels just fall off. We need as a leader to find solutions and allow the team to get involved as well to find solutions. To work as a team so that everyone feels they are part of something.

Researcher: So flexibility but also the ability to adapt to whatever happens? Ok

Participant: Sometimes you would find that as an employee you have an idea or a solution better than your manager's. The manager should be flexible to driveand lead with that idea.

Participant: I've heard in some of my conversations with people and it's not in this environment or the one that I am involved in. It's another organisation where the person got quite despondent giving an idea which was shot down and then six months down the line someone else had given life to that idea and it was like wow but nobody recognised it was her.

Participant: Sometimes it happens that you come up with an idea and its crushed and you find that six months down the line the very same person that crushed it, will pitch it and will be used because sometimes you find that they know the right person.

Researcher: So to capture that, its recognition? That is not only about capturing the ideas and that the ideas is embraced as well and promoted by your managers as your idea in terms of authenticity. So that is leadership preferences and how it influences our work.

Researcher: Question number 6 focuses on organisational culture. And now again you don't have to limit your views to your organisation. You can broaden it: How would you describe the culture of your organisation? What do you like the most of your organisation's culture and what do you like the least of your organisation's culture? Now this is where complexity comes in. The first one you give descriptive words of how you experience your culture. What your organisation is like? The second question is what

you like the most of your organisation? And the last part of the question is what you like the least- the same rules apply. Make sense?

Participant: I think I would describe it as people who share skills and knowledge.

Researcher: So the fact that you benefit from that the sharing of knowledge and skills?

Participant: What I like is it's a service provider. I get to move from one client to another. I get exposed to different environments. I learn new things and what I don't like about it is sometimes you get very difficult clients- that you can't cope with.

Researcher: ok, what else?

Participant: I feel like it's an easy-going culture. Everyone is here to get the job done and people are very friendly and all which is great because it gets to flexibility to do things the way you want to do them. You tend to feel that with that a lot of people tend to take advantage of that.

Researcher: Ok that's important. And if people take advantage, how does it make you feel as an employee?

Participant: Terrible…because then again it comes down to the favour thing, people take advantage and managers aren't doing anything about it. What's the point?

Researcher: Because you are trying to keep on the straight and narrow and then you just someone doing what they want.

Participant: Exactly

Researcher: Is there a concept you know in the older generation people used to say these are friends, these are my colleagues, this is my family, this is my social group, so everything was sort of compartmentalised. Is that an issue for us? From a culture perspective? Can you say your colleague is your friend? Is there better integration between us or do we still say these are my friends, these are my colleagues and there is a line we don't cross? From a relationship building perspective, how do we feel about that?

Participant: Sometimes it depends on how you communicate. How you get along with each other. Sometimes you take from being colleagues to friendship to someone who is very close to you. Sometimes you find this is my colleague and it remains like that because we don't get along with each other.

Participant: I wouldn't exactly say that's a generational thing though. That's completely personal for everyone. I mean I like Thuthukani, I work with the guy, but we don't hang out outside work.

Researcher: That's a very interesting view, anybody else? Who of you have taken somebody you work with home for dinner and not just one person. Let's just be clear on this but a group of friends and you decide ok we going to meet at this place… we going to have dinner or whatever.

Participant: Yeah we have but not at home.

Researcher: So there's still very much a fine line. Ok so anymore likes or dislikes about organisational culture? Any more likes or dislikes of the culture?

Participant: My likes would be the informalness of the environment, flexibility however that sometimes leads to a lack of standardisation. So there isn't a standard way of doing things. A proper way of doing things to follow.

Researcher: So there's pros and cons to that. I understand.

Researcher: So the second last question is: which aspects of your job make it easier to perform optimally? Which aspects of your job make it more difficult to perform optimally?

Researcher: So here you think about things that helps you perform and on the other hand you think about things that's serving as a barrier for you to perform optimally. It can be about your job, people, it can be about the environment…it can be about the people…it can be anything.

Participant: This is going to sound pretty obvious but training specifically because we work with a lot of companies in conjunction to get certain tasks done and I found that a lot of times they don't know what we are dealing with at all. So we can't do what we need to do. It makes it easier if they know what they doing.

Researcher: So training is very important.

Participant: We are very open organisation in that you have a lot of access to different minds of people. It's not we stop here, people who are senior to you are out of reach to you. You can actually reach out to them and talk to them. Very open organisation - I think that helps a lot.

Researcher: So the ability to talk to anyone, access to knowledge it's a concept that we call job resources. Job resources means whenever you need support, you know you going to get because you know when you have asked you will receive it. So that sense of you know when you ask you will receive response and training very important.

Researcher: So what else helps us work optimally?

Participant: I think flexible time table. You can structure it in a way that you know will work for you. When you can come in, when you are more productive.

Researcher: Ok so flexibility again. On the flipside, what holds us back? What frustrates our performance sometimes?

Participant: Maybe it's too many distractions. Since it is an open company with an open plan. Sometimes you find you trying to concentrate and then someone will come ask for something. You end up saying ok let's go and have some tea.

Researcher: So that can be a problem, because of the culture we build on one hand we enjoy but on the other it can be a bit of a problem.

Participant: Sometimes when we are working at clients, you don't have access to a lot of things as they are restricted.

Researcher: So restrictions on access when working with clients? That frustrates - ok. What else? Maybe think about your friends? your colleagues? what are the things that frustrates them?

Participant: I think it's nice to be recognised for a job well done. Just acknowledgement.

Researcher: Ok, so recognition and a thank you. How do you want to be thanked, by the way, while we're on it? I often wonder with the other generations.

Participant: Kudos and money?

Researcher: Our moms and dads would have said buy me a gold watch or something.

Participant: I honestly feel like just getting a thank you for the job that you have done is nice.

Researcher: Is that enough for us?

Participant: It's not a long-term thing. I think if you get a well done. Well done for a year, you need to see something for the work you have done.

Researcher: Ok, so there is a sincere thank you but then also a form of recognition be it monetary, kudos or voucher that would be welcome but at first point it would be a sincere thank you?

Participant: Yes, you can get incentive bonuses, but it still doesn't feel that great if you not getting that recognition. You want people to appreciate what you doing.

Participant: Also, if you have an idea and that idea gets used, the manager should tell people what you have done.

Researcher: So public recognition as well?

Researcher: The very last question is an open-ended question. If there is anything I have left out and you have any comments you have on the intention to quit or people staying. Anything you feel that I shouldn't have done differently after research.

Participant: What happened to company team building?

Researcher: Company teambuilding? Is it quite important?

Participant: It is because I noticed the last time we went to I think it was 2 or 3 years ago. When we came back from that, I was able to talk to more people that I never used to talk to because we were interacting at the team building. So I think that builds on relationships and improves the environment.

Researcher: Please put down team building for us. Any other comments you are welcome to put them down. Other than that I have only gratitude and appreciation to extend to you.

Participant: Kudos (laughter)

Researcher: Ladies and gentlemen thanks again for your thoughts. If you have any more information, email me and one more request from my side. Is it ok with your permission that once the questionnaire is developed that I could send that through to you? It will probably be a 10-15-minute questionnaire and it will be an online questionnaire. Could I send that through to you and also, I am using a method called the snowball, which means I would send it and you will send to three more people. So I need to get 300 respondents and I'm asking if you would be so kind that when you get the questionnaire just send it out to people in our age group.

Participants: Yes - thank you.

Researcher: Thank you so much.

Focus group session was adjourned.

APPENDIX F:

UNDERSTANDING SOUTH AFRICAN GENERATION Ys

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Dear participant

I am a [illegible] and am conducting research for my [illegible] at the University of Stellenbosch Business School (USBS). My student number is 03119313. The title of the research is "Attitudes of the Generation Y [illegible] and the skills development organisations in South Africa".

The purpose of the study is to investigate the Generation Y's attitudes towards [illegible] organisations' values, leadership styles, [illegible] and their [illegible] whether it does or does not [illegible]. Your input will help to [illegible] and to [illegible] to [illegible].

The supervisors for the study are Dr. E. Mahlatsi-Mahlatsi of USBS and Prof. L. Meiring from the University of Stellenbosch.

We kindly invite you to help us by completing the [illegible]. It should not take you more than 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Your responses will be anonymous. We do not require your name, or that of your organisation, and results will only be analysed at aggregate level. However, please note that your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from participation at any time.

A follow-up survey, which will be [illegible] your views, will be submitted to individuals who participated in the questionnaire. Those individuals who have completed the questionnaire will be invited to participate in phase 2 of the survey. By completing the questionnaire, you have indicated your willingness to participate in phase 2 of the study. Your participation in phase 2 is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time.

The study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch University (Ref No. [illegible]) and will be conducted according to the principles and ethical guidelines of the University.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, please feel free to contact me at [illegible] or my supervisors at [illegible].

Kindly complete the survey as soon as possible, as data analysis will start on [illegible].

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Best regards,

[illegible]

[illegible]

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS: You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

*Consent

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study.

- Yes
- No

*Please provide us with the code you have received from your friend

*SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Gender

- Male
- Female

* Age

*Language

- English
- Xhosa
- Afrikaans
- Venda
- Zulu
- Ndebele
- South Sotho
- North Sotho
- Tsonga
- Tswana
- Swati

*Ethnic Group

- Coloured
- Black (African)
- Coloured
- Indian
- White

*Highest Qualification Obtained

- Grade 12/Matriculation
- Post-School certificate
- Diploma
- Bachelor's degree
- Honours degree
- Master's degree
- PhD

*Occupational Level in Current Position

- Top Management
- Senior Management
- Middle Management
- Junior Management
- Supervision/Team Leader
- Employee/non-supervisory staff
- Other

Leadership Questionnaire

SECTION B:

Instructions:

The following statements describe how supervisors/managers typically think, feel and act at work as you perceive it. In responding to the statements you will provide us with information about how **YOUR** immediate supervisor/manager typically behaves in situations in the workplace.

Respond to each statement by selecting the number that best reflects your view. Work as quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. Please answer **all** the items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, choose N/A.** There is **no right or wrong answers**. We are only interested in how you see your supervisor's/manager's behaviour. Read each statement **carefully** and only choose **ONE** answer.

FOR EXAMPLE:

If you feel the following statement describes how your immediate supervisor/manager **fairly often** behaves, then make your cross **in block 4.**

My immediate supervisor/manager treats me with respect.

*MLQ 5X SHORT LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (MQL 5X SHORT FORM 5X)

My immediate supervisor/manager acts in ways that build my respect.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager talks about their most important values and beliefs.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager talks optimistically about the future.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager helps me think about problems in new ways.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager spends time teaching and coaching.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager treats you as an individual rather than just a member of the group.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager considers the moral and ethical consequences of his/her decisions.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager displays a sense of power and confidence.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager articulates a compelling vision of the future.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager gets me to look at problems from many angles.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager helps me to develop my strengths.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	○	○	○	○	○	○
My immediate supervisor/manager expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Comment:

Job Characteristics Questionnaire

SECTION C:
INSTRUCTIONS:

With regard to the following set of items, we ask that you indicate how strongly you **Disagree or Agree** with each statement. **Choose only ONE answer.**

FOR EXAMPLE:
If you feel you **slightly disagree** with the following statement then you select **block 3.**

Do you have enough freedom in your work?

*SECTION C: JOB CHARACTERISTICS SCALE [JCS] ADAPTED

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Neutral	5 Slightly Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
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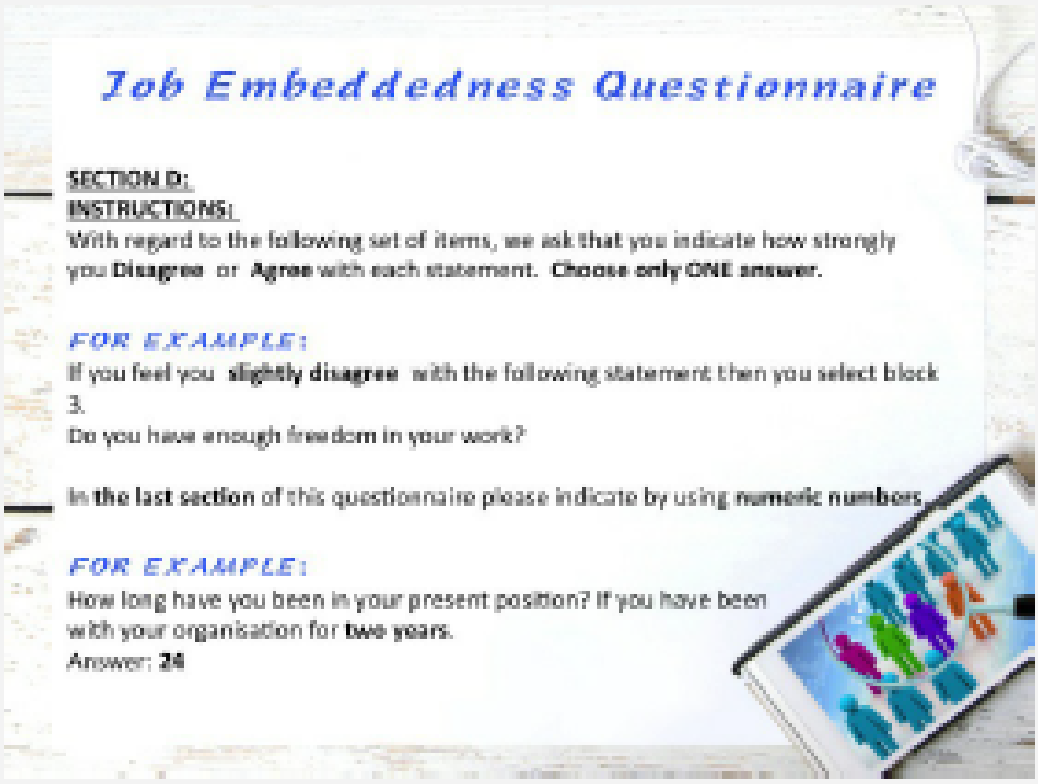
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
[illegible]	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Comments



SECTION D: JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

16. How long have you been in your present position?

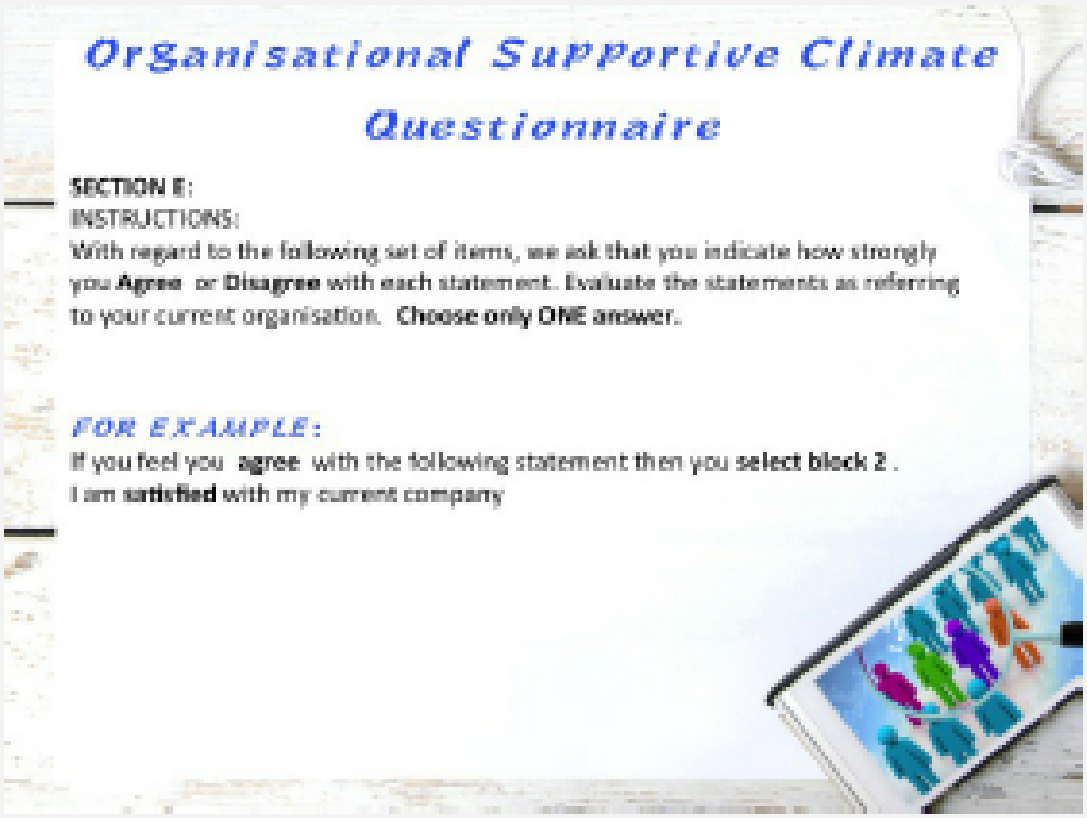
17. How long have you worked for this organisation?

18. How long have you worked in this industry? (Information Technology)

19. How many co-workers are highly dependent on you?

20. How many work teams are you on?

31. How many work committees are you on?



SECTION E: ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORTIVE CLIMATE

Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire

SECTION F:
INSTRUCTIONS:
The following statements describe various aspects of your pay.

For each of the statement decide how **satisfied** or **dissatisfied** you feel about your pay. We ask that you indicate how **strongly you feel** about each statement relating to your pay. **Choose only ONE answer.**

FOR EXAMPLE:
If you feel **very satisfied** with the following statement then you select **block 5**.

My take-home pay.

SECTION F: PAY SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Intention To Quit Questionnaire

SECTION G:
INSTRUCTIONS:
With regard to the following set of items, we ask that you indicate what is **true** for you with each statement. **Choose only ONE answer.**

FOR EXAMPLE:
If you feel you the statement is **occasionally true** for you with the following statement then you **select block 2 .**

I am satisfied with my current company.

SECTION G: INTENTION TO QUIT

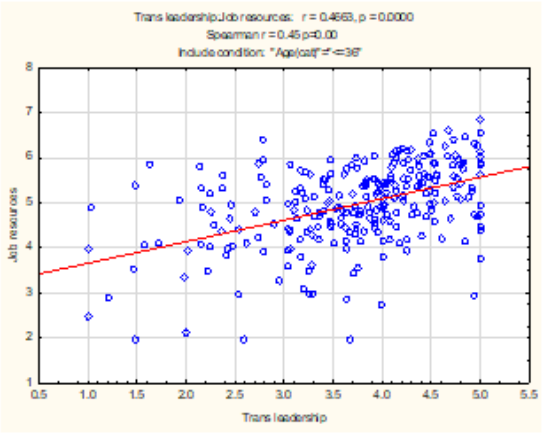
[redacted]

APPENDIX G:

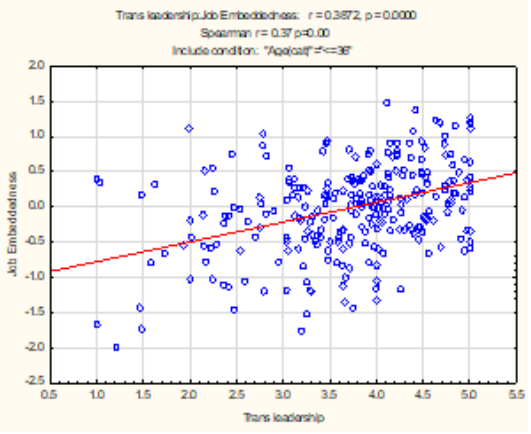
INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL COMMUNICATION

APPENDIX H:

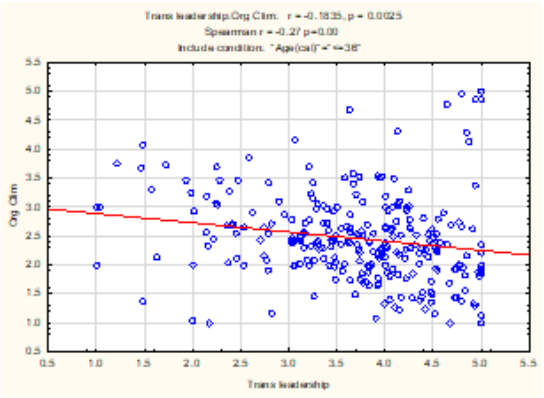
SCATTERPLOT 1



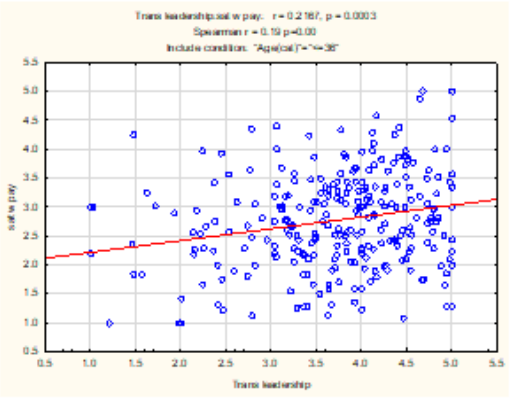
Transformational leadership: Job Resources



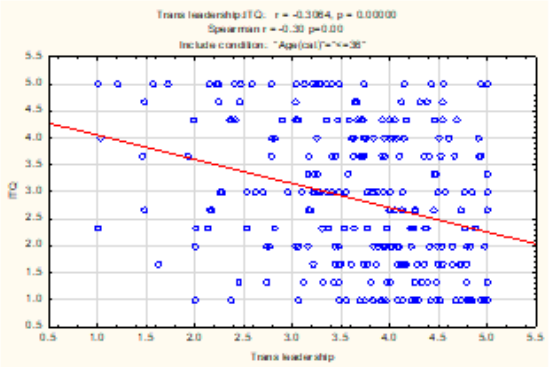
Transformational leadership: Job Embeddedness



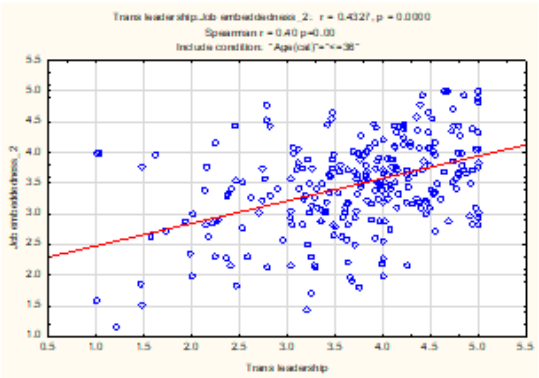
Transformational leadership: Org climate



Transformational leadership: satisfaction with pay



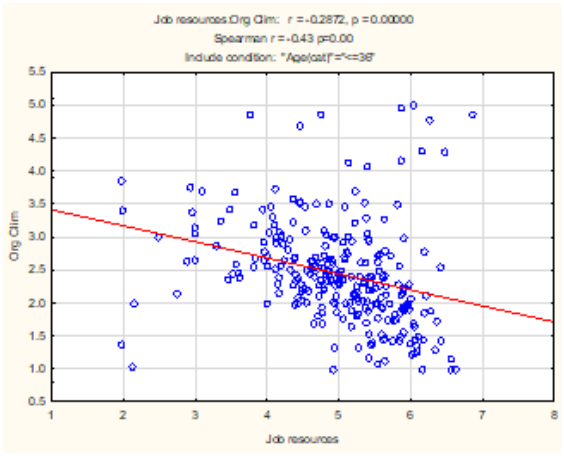
Transformational leadership: Intention to quit



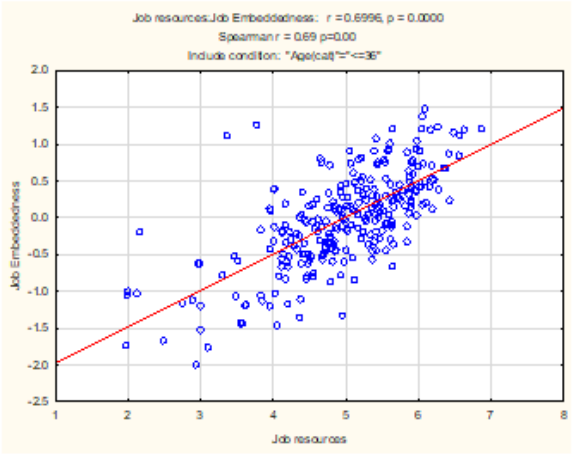
Job resources: Job Embeddedness_2

APPENDIX I:

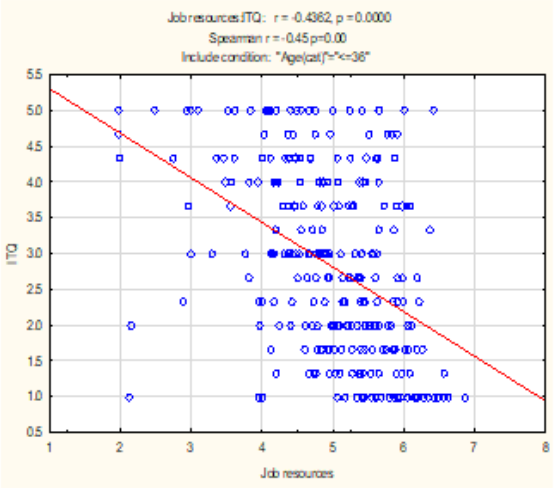
SCATTEPLOT 2



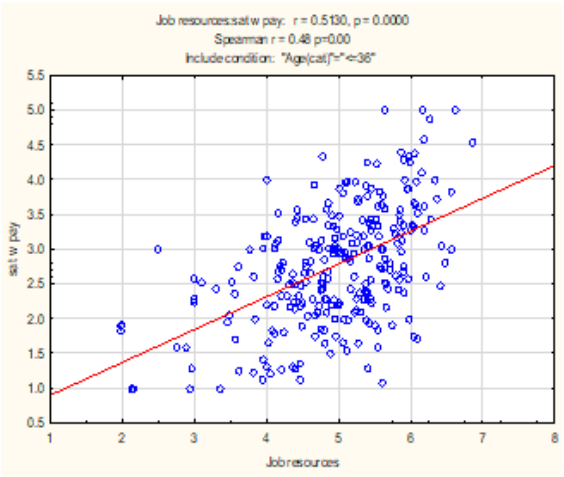
Job resources: Organisational climate



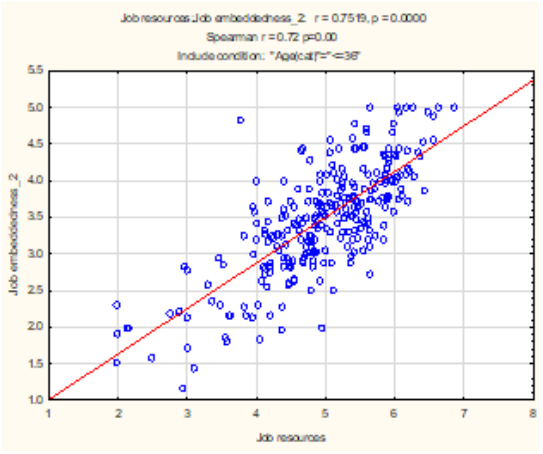
Job resources: Job embeddedness



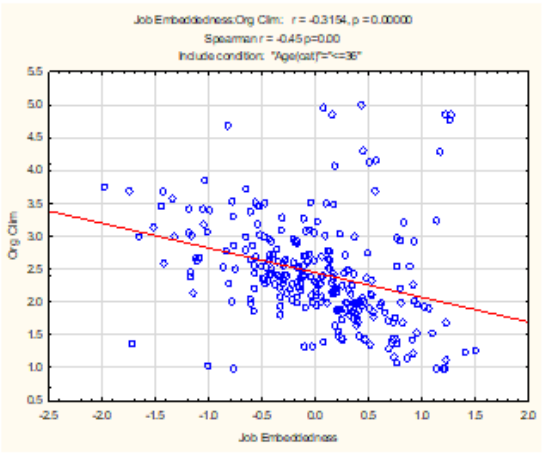
Job resources: Intention to quit



Job resources: Satisfaction with pay



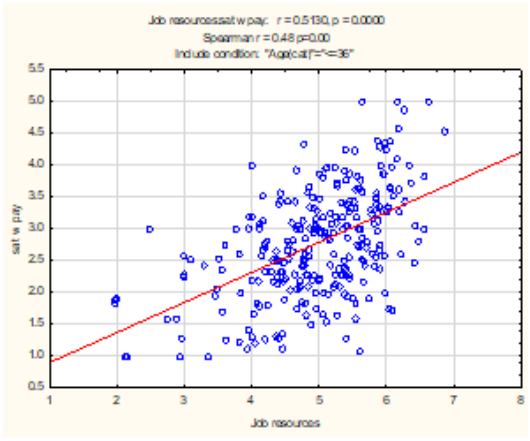
Job resources: Job embeddedness_2



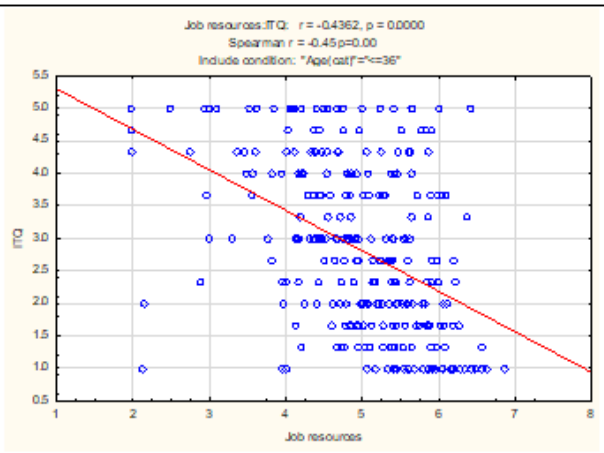
Job resources: Organisational climate

APPENDIX J:

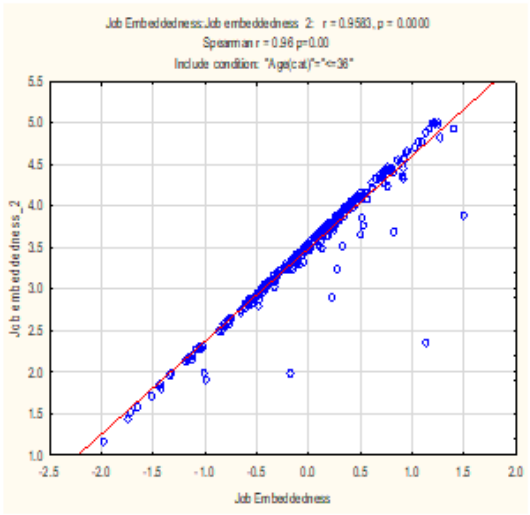
SCATTERPLOT 3



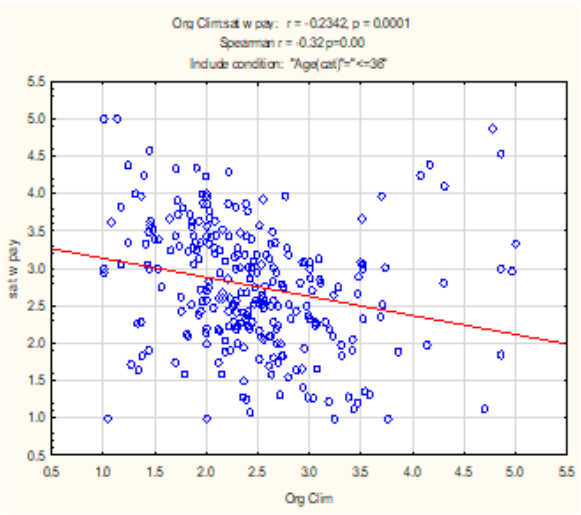
Job embeddedness: Satisfaction with pay



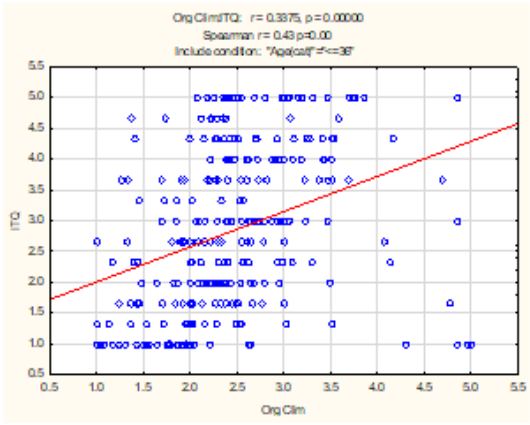
Job Embeddedness: Intention to quit



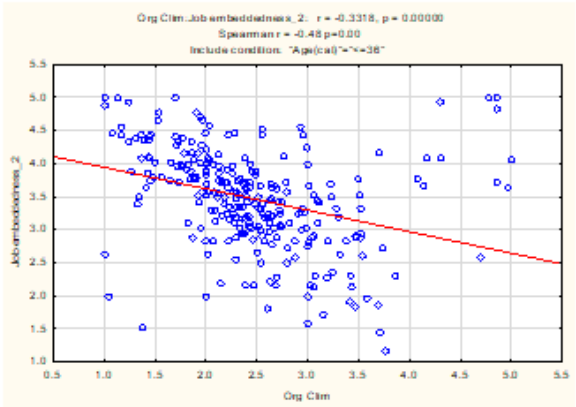
Job Embeddedness: Job Embeddedness 2



Org Climate: Satisfaction with pay



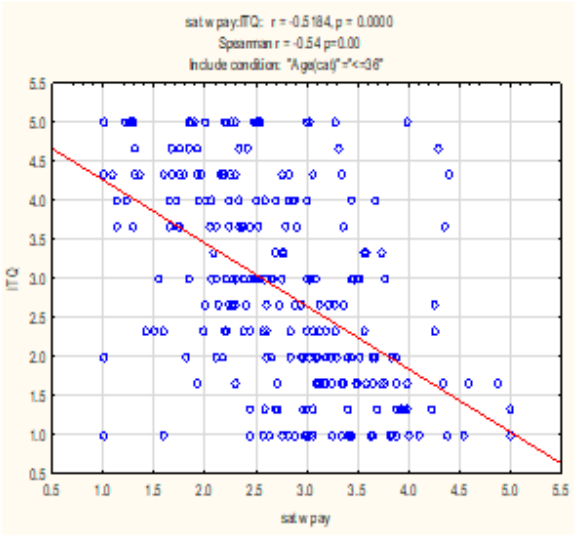
Organisational climate: Intention to quit



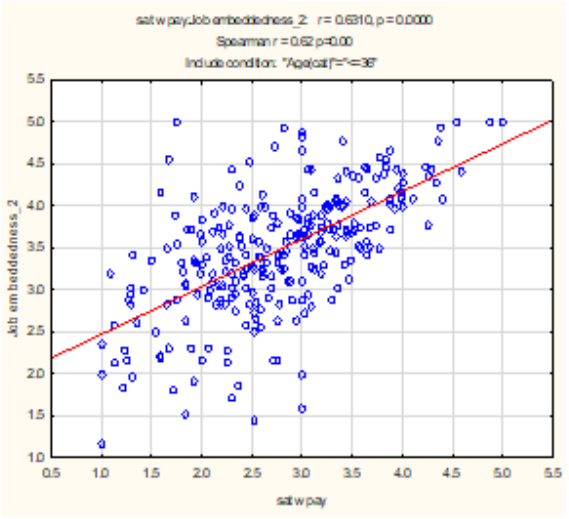
Organisational climate: Job Embeddedness 2

APPENDIX K:

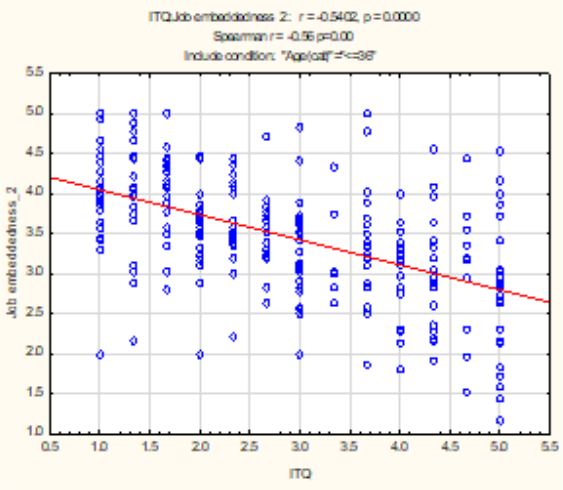
SCATTERPLOT 4



Satisfaction with pay: Intention to quit



Satisfaction with pay: Job embeddedness_2



Intention to quit: Job Embeddedness 2

APPENDIX L:
OUTER LOADINGS

Outer loadings of the latent variables on the applicable items(CI)

From variable	To variable	Original Sample (O)	2,50%	97,50%	Significant from CI	p-value of T-test
ITQ	ITQ_Q127	0,933	0,911	0,953	Yes	0
ITQ	ITQ_Q128	0,855	0,806	0,891	Yes	0
ITQ	ITQ_Q129	0,94	0,921	0,956	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q30	0,658	0,565	0,738	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q31	0,734	0,665	0,788	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q32	0,758	0,686	0,813	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q33	0,834	0,781	0,874	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q34	0,738	0,66	0,798	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q51	0,713	0,628	0,779	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q59	0,682	0,592	0,756	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q64	0,745	0,676	0,804	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q65	0,786	716	0,835	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q66	0,78	0,72	0,828	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q67	0,574	0,472	0,666	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q68	0,713	0,636	0,774	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q69	0,782	0,716	0,834	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q70	0,762	0,7	0,817	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q72	0,652	0,564	0,733	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q73	0,387	0,269	0,493	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q74	0,497	0,387	0,599	Yes	0
Job Embeddedness	JE_Q75	0,692	0,616	0,751	Yes	0
Job Security	JS_Q60	0,909	0,847	0,947	Yes	0
Job Security	JS_Q61	0,95	0,925	0,967	Yes	0
Job Security	JS_Q62	0,871	0,808	0,918	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q108	0,826	0,784	0,861	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q109	0,743	0,673	0,805	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q110	0,716	0,645	0,775	Yes	0

Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q111	0,672	0,583	0,744	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q112	0,853	0,801	0,89	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q113	0,733	0,661	0,792	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q114	0,654	0,569	0,731	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q115	0,807	0,744	0,852	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q116	0,709	0,63	0,775	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q117	0,871	0,837	0,9	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q118	0,75	0,684	0,804	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q119	0,47	0,343	0,584	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q120	0,745	0,661	0,812	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q121	0,875	0,845	0,901	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q122	0,706	0,627	0,773	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q123	0,756	0,692	0,812	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q124	0,769	0,707	0,82	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q125	0,586	0,477	0,68	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q54	0,732	0,669	0,787	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q55	0,742	0,672	0,799	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q56	0,806	0,759	0,846	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q57	0,734	0,677	0,787	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q76	0,763	0,703	0,814	Yes	0
Satisfaction with benefits	SB_Q77	0,723	0,662	0,781	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q38	0,765	0,678	0,823	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q39	0,804	0,721	0,864	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q40	0,812	0,744	0,864	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q42	0,76	0,686	0,822	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q45	0,636	0,527	0,723	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q46	0,638	0,529	0,725	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q52	0,685	0,518	0,789	Yes	0
Social Support	SS_Q53	0,706	0,552	0,805	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q100	0,68	0,579	0,756	Yes	0

Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q101	0,685	0,559	0,738	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q102	0,841	0,791	0,875	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q103	0,65	0,541	0,741	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q104	0,708	0,604	0,778	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q105	0,685	0,571	0,766	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q106	0,667	0,563	0,747	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q86	0,748	0,674	0,807	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q87	0,718	0,606	0,806	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q88	0,758	0,682	0,819	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q89	0,762	0,695	0,814	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q90	0,819	0,767	0,859	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q91	0,806	0,754	0,847	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q92	0,66	0,559	0,744	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q93	0,752	0,684	0,809	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q94	0,794	0,743	0,839	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q95	0,613	0,501	0,706	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q96	0,782	0,717	0,837	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q97	0,574	0,459	0,663	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q98	0,778	0,719	0,833	Yes	0
Supportive Org Climate	SO_Q99	0,676	0,581	0,75	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q10	0,666	0,552	0,752	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q11	0,54	0,433	0,639	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q12	0,7	0,61	0,769	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q13	0,681	0,579	0,753	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q14	0,709	0,612	0,778	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q15	0,69	0,596	0,762	Yes	0

Trans Leadership	TL_Q16	0,7	0,618	0,762	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q17	0,764	0,712	0,814	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q18	0,784	0,72	0,836	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q19	0,659	0,549	0,748	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q20	0,676	0,581	0,754	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q21	0,566	0,442	0,671	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q22	0,751	0,67	0,808	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q23	0,622	0,512	0,711	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q24	0,78	0,717	0,826	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q25	0,812	0,766	0,856	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q26	0,756	0,68	0,81	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q27	0,764	0,693	0,827	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q43	0,721	0,655	0,787	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q49	0,666	0,59	0,728	Yes	0
Trans Leadership	TL_Q9	0,807	0,74	0,854	Yes	0